

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE DISTRIBUTION OF LEADERSHIP IN
EXTENDED LEARNING ACTIVITIES THROUGH THE LENS OF
CULTURAL HISTORICAL ACTIVITY THEORY**

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements of the University of East London
for the degree of professional doctorate in education**

Cass School of Education and Communities – University of East London

December 2017

Abstract

In order to address the criticism that Distributed Leadership (DL) literature is vague, confusing, has misleading definitions and is contradictory (Spillane and Coldren, 2011, p.26), this thesis puts forward a different approach in the form of a 'Universal Leadership Culture'. This was developed from the findings of a study which aimed to investigate the distribution of leadership in Extended Learning Activities (ELAs), delivered in Centres placed in high profile sports clubs in England, through the particular Government initiative of 'Playing for Success' (PfS). Within an interpretative paradigm qualitative data was collected from two PfS Extended Learning Centres, established in Football Club stadiums. From considering the ideals of DL, as presented in the literature (Gronn, 2002, MacBeath 2004, Spillane, 2006, Leithwood *et al.*, 2007), this study began with the assumption that the distribution of leadership had supported these Centres to deliver their desired outcomes. It investigated what it looked like and how and why it is facilitated. However, to create a more empirically robust theoretical framework, Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) was combined with the existing conceptual frameworks of the 'Distributed Leadership Perspective' (Spillane, 2006) to become the 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution'. It provided an analytical 'close-up' of the elements of leadership activity from a historical and cultural viewpoint to understand what the implications of efficacy were and the 'conditions where leadership distribution might thrive' (Harris, 2008 p.183). Leadership distribution patterns, identified in the DL literature, were refined for this thesis into four categories of *formal*, *pragmatic*, *organic* and *chaotic* alignments of distribution. Through the activity systems of CHAT it could be seen that Centres used the distribution of leadership to support them in reaching their goals in different ways. Centre A relied on more *organic* situations, developing 'hands on' experience while Centre B created *formal* systems, such as training. However, staff in both Centres did not fully understand what approaches to leadership they were employing and displayed potentially disruptive or exploitative forms of distribution with *chaotic* alignments. For leadership distribution to be supportive to an organisation, there needs to be a holistic and self-aware approach that encourages continuous open and honest communication to ensure its effectiveness, as illustrated through a Universal Leadership Culture. It is hoped this might support future researchers, policy makers and practitioners looking at the distribution of leadership.

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Abbreviations

ACEVO –	Association of Chief Executives of Voluntary Organisations
BERA –	British Educational Research Association
CHAT –	Cultural Historical Activity Theory
DCSF-	Department for Children Schools and Families
DfE-	Department for Education
DfES -	Department for Education and Skills
DL -	Distributed Leadership
ECM -	Every Child Matters
ELAs -	Extended Learning Activities
ES -	Extended Schools
IOC –	International Olympic Committee
LA -	Local Authority
LEA –	Local Education Authority
LOCOG -	London Organising Committee of the Olympic Games
MBA –	Management Business Award
NCTL –	National College for Teaching and Leadership (School Leadership)
NFER-	National Foundation for Educational Research
NPQH –	National Professional Qualification for Headship
Ofsted -	Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills
PfS -	Playing for Success
QiSS -	Quality in Study Support (kite mark)
SEAL –	Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning
SL –	Shared Leadership
TDA -	Teaching Development Agency
VSO –	Voluntary Service Organisations

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge all of the support UEL staff have given me throughout my many years completing this thesis, especially my supervisors Dr Gerry Czerniawski, Dr Neil Herrington, Dr Warren Kidd and Dr Carrie Weston who saved me from drowning in the world of academia. They showed me great kindness and patience and I am grateful for their belief in me. Sadly Dr Peter Martin (1949-2009) passed away at the beginning of my journey but I am thankful that he welcomed me as a potential student so openly and encouraged me to embark on this study.

I would like to acknowledge the support of my parents whose wisdom and guidance was invaluable. My father for his literary knowledge and my mother for listening to many a claim that 'I'm nearly there now' despite being years away.

Dedications

I dedicate this thesis to my family especially my sons Alex and Leo who lost lots of 'Mummy time'. Hopefully in the future my achievement will be an inspiration to them as my father's PhD was to me.

I also dedicate this thesis to Rex Hall OBE (1946 – 2010), who was seen by many as the godfather to Playing for Success and who I believe was partly responsible for instilling in Centre Managers the desire to create opportunities for others to grow as leaders. He nurtured the ideology which drove me to write this thesis.

1 Chapter One – Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This thesis aims to investigate the distribution of leadership in Extended Learning Activities (ELAs), delivered through the particular Government initiative of 'Playing for Success' (PfS) which placed education centres in high profile sports clubs in England from 1997. This study focuses on two London based PfS Centres who use the theme of sport to motivate and raise achievement. The research took place at the height of the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games and it adds to the limited collection of studies about leadership of Extended Learning Activities, especially those delivering Olympic and Paralympic educational programmes. While what literature there is (MacBeath *et al.*, 1991; Swaffield, 2005, Sharp *et al.*, 2007) highlighted how out of school hours learning and study support engages young people in education, there have been few studies that consider how these are led formally and informally. I am carrying out this research from the position of an 'insider' (Banks, 1998), as I once managed and now oversee one of the Centres studied but I also hold a partnership relationship with the second Centre studied. I developed professionally through the period of the New Labour Government (1997-2010), when the Extended Schools agenda (DfES, 2005) expected teachers, students and community leaders to develop community-anchored organisations and foster shared accountability for student learning (Hallinger and Heck, 2010, Murphy *et al.*, 2009). The distribution of leadership was seen as good practice during this time and this investigation is driven by my belief that these Centres are supported by it to meet their goals.

To provide a context this Chapter begins by explaining where this study sits in relation to the leadership debate. It uses the aims of two prominent Government agendas given importance during the life of the Centres 'to build social capital' and 'to achieve social justice', to frame the background to this study. Within this it explains what Extended Learning Activities (ELAs) are and how the Centres, who belong to the particular initiative of Playing for Success (PfS, 2011), deliver them. The research questions are then introduced followed by an explanation as to how the research design and theoretical framework was developed from

two strands in the literature: Distributed Leadership (DL) and Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). Finally the overall structure of the thesis is provided followed by a conclusion.

1.2 Positioning of this study in the leadership literature

'Post Heroic' leadership (Northouse, 2004, p.198) was seen as the model for the fast pace of change (Leithwood *et al.*, 2009, p.xvii) and the distribution of leadership helped support the aim to create flatter organisational structures and develop reciprocal relationships between individuals, allowing informal leaders to influence those in formal positions. Over the last two decades in England 'Distributed Leadership' (DL) has become a popular term in education for the distribution of leadership, particularly focussed in schools. DL considers not only the sharing of responsibilities but the participation of every member of staff, regardless of their position, in the vision and direction of an organisation through joint decision making and individual expertise. Emerging from the DL literature (Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2001, Gronn, 2002, Halverson *et al.*, 2007, Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009) it is possible to see how DL can help practitioners to work towards positive change and shared vision, trust between all participants' individual expertise, inter-communication and a non-judgmental environment that supports and allows risk-taking, important to those taking on leadership or sharing it.

DL has captured educational practitioners and policy makers' imagination (Harris, 2007, p.315) across the world. In particular the USA, Canada and Australia have produced a large amount of evidence in the last ten years to make it culturally accepted. However, because of the limited amount of research models and UK based evidence (Hall and Southworth, 1997; Gunter, 2003; Macbeath, 2004) British researchers have relied on research from overseas and potentially suffered from cultural differences and non-transferability findings. This study hopes to provide a more local account. While attempting to answer the demand for more descriptive work about the distribution of leadership to improve understanding and explore different emerging concepts (Spillane and Healey, 2010, p.257), it hopes to alleviate the shortage of empirical studies that record elements of the Distributive Leadership Perspective, developed by the DL Scholars in Chicago (Spillane *et. al.* 2006), in action. By choosing to investigate the distribution of leadership in an

educational organisation I am professionally involved with, this thesis also hopes to contribute to other studies concerning 'what insider researchers actually experience' (Chavez, 2008, p.475).

However, as Oduro (2004, p.1) points out there is confusion about what the dominant term in the literature 'Distributed Leadership' means and in his criticism of the concept Hatcher (2005, p.265) questions if DL is really possible maintaining that DL requires the delegation of power and can only result from ending schools' hierarchical conceptions of leadership. To create a culture where leadership is distributed, someone in authority needs to make the decision, such as a School-head, or in this case the Centre Manager, meaning there is still a distributor with relationships based on power. This thesis therefore refers to leadership distribution in general but considers the positive concepts connected to DL as ideals, potential attributes for all leadership that is distributed. It attempts to capture what it looks like, how and why it is employed and 'what conditions are needed for it to thrive' (Harris, 2008 p.183) for reasons explained in 1.7.1 below. As an insider, I made prior assumptions that the Centres under case study are striving for the ideals of DL explained below in 1.5. These ideals are outlined in section 2.5. Nonetheless, I believe that the term misleads researchers and I explore the alternative concept of a Universal Leadership Culture in section 7.4. It is a different approach and focuses more on what can be done to develop a positive climate to support the distribution of leadership. It has been informed by the literature review, findings and discussion found in this thesis and is created from the four themes relating to the efficacy of distributing leadership in future Extended Learning Activities as discussed in 6.4. By supporting the radiation of leadership throughout a team and across levels it is a more open practice to allow staff to have conversations around where responsibility ends and accountability begins, acknowledging that all need to be 'ready' (both willing and able), whether they are the 'distributor' or are accepting the distribution. It is accepting of the necessities of hierarchy, especially in relation to caring for children, but encourages followers to be conscious of their role and have the courage to challenge their leaders for the good of the organisation.

The following section will present the context and background to the study by framing it within two major strands of the Labour Government's work: the aim of

building social capital implemented through the 'Extended Schools' (2005) agenda and the aim of achieving social justice implemented through the 'Every Child Matters' agenda (2003). Both aimed to fulfil the Government's objective of 'lifting children out of poverty and improving outcomes for them and their families' (DCSF, 2007, p.2) and both were equally influential on the direction of the leadership activity in the Centres in this study as explained below.

1.3 Building Social Capital

When Labour returned to power in 1997, more than one in four UK children lived in relative poverty compared with one in eight when Labour left office in 1979 (Hills et al., 2009). The Government at that time tried to redress the balance by encouraging individuals to realize their potential and contribute to society (Brighouse and Swift, 2008). One of New Labour's first initiatives to achieve their goals was 'Playing for Success' in 1997, under which the Centres in this study were established. Alongside this they created other initiatives aimed at raising educational standards in disadvantaged communities. These included Excellence in Cities and Education Action Zones (1998), the Beacon Schools scheme (1998), the Specialist Schools' programme (2000) and the Behaviour Improvement Programme (2003). New Labour strove to counter educational disadvantage by tackling social exclusion (Giddens, 2000). The Government drew ideas from the New Democrats, led by politicians such as Al From in the 1980s (Hale, 1995) in the US and the Scandinavian Labour Markets programme in the 1990s (Adda et al., 2007), but their main inspiration was the British sociologist, Anthony Giddens's (1999, p.154) attempt to provide a synthesis between capitalism and socialism. Many of their educational initiatives suggested they could raise achievement by rebuilding social capital (Raffo, et al., 2007). They stated in the Excellence in Schools White Paper 'we are talking about investing in human capital in an age of knowledge' (Blunkett, 1997, p.3).

1.3.1 Extended Schools

Increasingly in the 1990s educational practitioners recognised learning to be social in nature, created collaboratively through joint-action and shared intelligence. Schools were required to adopt change strategies that provided internal stability while moving ahead. They were expected to function as a learning organisation to improve performance and build capacity and in England in 2005, the Extended Schools agenda was introduced. It expected all Schools

to deliver a 'Core Offer,' which included 'a varied menu of after-school activities,' by involving all stakeholders (DfES, 2005, p.8). The agenda aimed to provide 'a range of services and activities, often beyond the school day, to help meet the needs of children and their families from all backgrounds and the wider community' (DfES, 2005, p.7). The Extended Service in England mirrored that of the development of full-service schooling in the USA (Dryfoos, 1994), New Community Schools in Scotland (Sammons, Hillman, and Mortimore, 1995) and Extended Service Schools in Australia (Black, Lemon and Walsh, 2011). The policy document 'Extended schools: Access to Opportunities and Services for all' (DfES, 2005), insisted that schools should have wider and stronger relationships with their community through initiatives such as PfS. But because investigations (Dryfoos, 2000; Cummings, Dyson and Todd, 2004; Warren, 2005; Dyson and Todd, 2010) have been descriptive and advisory it has been difficult to collect robust evidence that these relationships were wider and stronger. A subsequent evaluation (Carpenter *et al.*, 2010) suggests the Extended Schools initiatives in England positively impacted on highly disadvantaged children and families leading up to improvements in pupil attendance and a reduction in exclusions. Ofsted (2008) and the NCTL/TDA (2009) claimed there were benefits for children, young people and adults, including enhanced self-confidence, improved relationships, raised aspirations and better attitudes to learning.

Extended Schools were expected to develop social capital. As Putnam (2000, p.19) explains, physical capital referred to material objects, human capital to the properties in the heads of individuals and social capital to connections between individuals and the structure of their relationships. Hopkins and Jackson (2008, p.89) believe trust, openness, communication, reciprocity, equity and a focus upon relationships were important factors in developing capacity, described as collective energy and collective intelligence with the attitude 'this is the way we do things round here' (Szreter and Woolcock, 2004, p.52). Social capital is said to be found within individuals and communities with high levels of education and training (Field, 2003; Power, 2008) and to result from interactions that generate group cohesiveness (Hogg, 1993, Prentice, Miller and Lightdale, 1994; Dion, 2000), social capital could arise between those with common interests, attractiveness to each other, similarities, long spells of time together, smallness

of group size, fantastic achievements or external threats that have brought members close (Margaró and Ashbrook, 1985; Levine and Moreland, 1998). Many of these can lead to the development of enough trust to make commitments, especially important if traditional ideas of leadership are to be challenged. However, as Halverson (2007, p.94) explains, social capital might develop from collaborations among motivated individuals but may not be beneficial if not distributed across the school. Social capital will not work either if maintaining good relations between group members becomes more important than resolving problems, decision making or working towards a goal discussed in the behaviours of organisations (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2000, p.61, Aronson, 2002, p.304). For leadership to be distributed there needs to be more than just an individual leader. Developing social capital is therefore relevant and important.

The workforce remodelling agenda (Butt and Gunter, 2005) was brought in to encourage educational organisations to build social capital. It was introduced in three stages between 2003 and 2006 to support Schools in their development of extended services and the Teaching Development Agency (TDA) trained key personnel from schools and local authorities (LAs) to use Extended Schools remodelling kits (DfES, 2009). Despite criticism for being over simplistic (Western, 2008) and unrealistic, they were instrumental in the shift from the individual 'leader' approach to collective leadership (Gronn, 2002, Spillane, 2006) discussed in 2.3. The complex and dynamic process of creating social capital, driven by the 'Extended Schools' agenda, cultivated desirable behaviours encouraged by the DfES (2009). Leaders displayed acknowledgement of social capital ideology through vision statements, business plans, school badges, displays, policies and curriculum (Jaeger *et al.*, 2014). This culture was also developed subliminally through language and attitudes (Pohio, 2016, p.154). In these 'forward moving' local government organisations, the distribution of leadership was said to be exercised by those people who had constructed alliances, support systems and collaborative cultures for inter-agency working through flatter structures (Gronn, 2002). However, as Hammersley-Fletcher and Strain (2008, p.3) argue, it was also encouraged to meet the issues caused by a lack of recruitment and retention in teaching staff and to 'address teachers' feelings of disempowerment and work overload'

brought about by the Government's desire to raise English standards and the introduction of the National Curriculum in England and Wales in 1988. Teachers became fatigued and frustrated with the fast pace of change to meet these standards particularly as English teachers' 'sense of professional identity' was tied to a 'long history of autonomy and responsibility for children's learning' (Hammersely-Fletcher and Qualter, 2010, p.904).

1.3.2 Extended Learning Activities

Extended Schools were expected to deliver 'a varied menu of activities' as part of the 'core offer' (DfES, 2005). Educationalists were encouraged to use them to try to find ways of widening opportunities for all learners, not just the academically motivated. They can develop interpersonal and intrapersonal skills and enable students to review past and future actions (Hawkes, 2010).

Extended Learning Activities (ELAs) respond to the belief that the school curriculum does not intellectually and morally meet today's needs and 'cripples many whose talents and abilities lie elsewhere' (Noddings, 1992, p.28). Many terms have been used simultaneously to describe ELAs for children and young people that run beyond the school timetable. Over the last hundred years, these have included, 'extra-curricular' (Coleman, 1928), 'study support' (MacBeath *et al.*, 2001) 'out of school hours learning' (MacBeath *et al.*, 2001b), and 'after school clubs' (Gatenby, 2011). Provision has developed through the Extended Schools agenda (2003) discussed below in 1.4.1 and ELAs can take the form of breakfast, lunchtime or afterschool clubs, happening on the school site or in other educational establishments (QiSS, 2014). However, they are often thought of as 'booster' classes. Miller and Kirkland (2010), Robinson (2001), and Craig *et al.*, (2008) argue that testing systems may only capture academic ability that demonstrate intelligence, than are used in selection procedures for the rest of our lives. ELAs allow children and young people to achieve in other ways (QiSS, 2014) and recognize other forms of intelligence as explored by Gardner (2008). The children and young people involved in ELAs gain a rich, alternative, personalised experience to school lessons that equips them with life skills such as confidence, teamwork, communication and resilience. Seen as a tsar at the time to educational leadership in England since the late nineties, Sir Tim Brighouse founded the 'University of the First Age' to deliver summer schools nationally in 1996. He believed that ELAs held 'the key to closing the achievement gap between children from rich and poor families' as only 15% of a

child's waking time is spent in schools and affluent families can offer their children better enrichment activities that therefore make them more resilient in future life. He thought it to be the 'universal right' of every child to have structured 'out-of-school activities' (Morrison, 2006).

Most ELAs are not just booster sessions for exams but involve vocational activity that would not normally happen in the classroom, like photography, hair and beauty and computer game design. They provide 'adventures of self-discovery, journeys into new ways of knowing, realisation of hidden talents' (MacBeath, 2009, p.iv). As evaluation reports (Cummings *et al.*, 2011, p.81) have shown they contribute to raising attainment by offering students inspiration to realise their potential, to be healthier and have positive impacts on home and family. Created specifically to deliver ELAs, the PfS Centres in this study aim to offer these alternative educational experiences.

1.3.3 Playing for Success

Established for the 'New Labour' Government, as a national initiative in 1997 by the Department for Education and Skills, the first PfS Centres are now nearing their 20th anniversary in operation. PfS acted as a vehicle delivering ELAs to pupils and helped the Government support schools to build their social capital through partnership work. Therefore it is possible these values were heightened in the Centres. The three-way partnership necessary for PfS Centres, between the Sports Club, Local Education Authority (LEA) and Department for Education and Skills (DfES) in PfS was in itself an example of how social capital was created. The National Federation of Educational Research (NFER) was commissioned to make several evaluation reports (Sharp *et al.*, 1999, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2007) on the impact of PfS programmes on pupils. Their final study in 2007 highlights the necessity of collaborative work that supported stakeholders to develop social capital:

Partnership working between Centres and schools was critical, before, during and after pupils attended the PfS programme. Establishing a good relationship with the host club was important, as was a good working relationship with local authority colleagues, 'critical friends' and the central team at DfES (Sharp, *et al.*, 2007, p.ii).

The network between agencies described in the evaluation illustrates how social capital was developed and the leadership was distributed to support the Centres to deliver their outcomes. Despite the three-way partnership, looking specifically at the Centres under case study, from inception Centre A grew under the direction of the LEA, whilst Centre B grew under the direction of the Club. PfS aimed to contribute to raising educational standards by placing study centres in high-level professional football clubs, particularly in poor urban areas. In-line with this, the two Centres in this study have communities with above average levels of unemployment with children living in poverty. The PfS initiative expanded from three pilot centres in 1997 to more than 162 by 2011 (Sharp, *et al.*, 2007). Schools are key partners. The programme targets under-achieving young people from key stages two and three and places strong emphasis on improving pupils' attitudes and motivation to learn. Managed by experienced teachers, the Centres use the theme of sport to promote literacy, numeracy, ICT and key skills such as confidence, team-building and communication. The high profile venues mean that many educational opportunities open up for the staff that work in them. In the lead-up to and during the 2012 Games, the Centres pursued the same aim, using an inspiring sporting environment to raise standards and deliver programmes related to the Olympics and Paralympics. Pupils attend the PfS Centres after school for around 20 hours spread over about ten weeks (Sharp *et al.*, 2007). However, many PfS Centres closed when the Government comprehensive spending review ended funding in 2011 (PfS, 2011). The Centres under case study managed to become partially self-sustaining by retaining funding and support from the local authority in the case of Centre A and the Club in the case of Centre B. Both still benefit from contributions in kind from their football clubs in the form of free space, heating, lighting and water.

When the Coalition Government came to power in 2010 it dropped the Extended Schools agendas. However, staff in PfS Centres trained as 'Extended Schools Remodelling Consultants' upheld the philosophy and values in the Centre's programmes and practices. When funding for PfS ended in 2011 in the year leading up to the Games, the organisations that stepped in to cover the grants may have influenced the Centres' leadership to have other emphasis. For Centre A this was the local authority in question, for Centre B the Club's

Foundation. Despite this change in Government and agendas it is very probable that after thirteen years under New Labour the leadership approaches in the Centres would not change dramatically in the space of one year. However these changes would have had some influence on how and why leadership could be distributed when the data was collected in 2012 and this is reflected on in this investigation.

1.4 Achieving Social Justice

The second strand to the Labour Government's work was to achieve social justice. They attempted to address social injustice by promoting equal chances and the redistribution of power (Sanders and Epstein, 1998; Muijs *et al.*, 2004; Raffo, *et al.*, 2007). It was acknowledged that education could challenge social injustice, but equally it could be instrumental in maximising social disadvantage (Leadbeater and Mongon, 2006, p.7). This ideology was pushed through a key agenda called Every Child Matters (DfES, 2003a).

1.4.1 Every Child Matters

Every Child Matters (ECM) was created partly in response to the death of Victoria Climbié, a child whose neglect by her carers was not recognised by the different agencies that came in contact with her. The ECM agenda (DfES, 2003a) led to the Children Act 2004. It became a framework for anyone working with children and young people across services. ELAs were expected to contribute to two of the five outcomes: enjoying and achieving and making a positive contribution. Harris (2007) and Cheminais (2010) agree with Wilkin *et al.* (2008, p.9) that the ECM framework gave services a 'common point of reference with which to track progress and facilitate inter-agency work'. The NfER study for the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL), in 2007, titled '*Every Child Matters: How School Leaders in Extended Schools Respond to Local Needs*,' has a strap-line on its cover 'inspiring leaders; improving children's lives' implying that raising aspirations starts with the educator and filters down to the students. The document suggests that individual schools should develop their own approach to collaborating with others. Head teachers should gather evidence that ECM worked and promote it widely throughout the school to secure commitment by all staff (Kendall *et al.*, 2008).

It could be argued that ECM heightened concepts of 'equality' in the education profession and was important for the wellbeing of young people and staff, who might feel they do not get recognition for what they do, as found in Distributed Leadership (Harris, 2006, p.40-41). Working relationships that 'bridge' groups and 'bond' individuals flatten artificial hierarchies and develop a 'wholeness and the spirit of connection' (Chapman and West-Burnham, 2010, p.21). Soloman (1995, p.7) explores the belief that achieving justice is a personal virtue and part of one's character formed by reason, reflection and deliberation, with implementation depending on an individual's ability to do 'the right thing. In many ways it could be argued that its values echo those found in Olympism discussed below in 1.4.4. When Sir Tim Brighouse was Chief Advisor to London Schools he produced *'How head-teachers survive and thrive'* (2007) emphasising the importance of emotional intelligence and referring to ingredients for success as 'delegation' and 'shared values' (Brighouse, 2007, p.4). Kendall *et al.* (2008, p.19) note that a wide range of professionals involved in decision-making 'blurred the boundaries of teaching and learning, transforming the roles of teaching and non-teaching staff and students within the school.' Calling non-teachers 'associate staff' instead of 'support staff' encouraged them to be entrepreneurial and take risks (Kendall *et al.*, 2008, p.22). However, the expanding role of the Teaching Assistant (TA) to encompass a range of duties including supervising other TAs, left teachers recognising they could be replaced by cheaper non-qualified staff and left the door open for those in formal leadership roles to extended responsibilities for them without considering willingness or ability explored later in 2.3. It also challenged the 'moral aspects involved in ignoring the importance of teachers' identities' (Hammersley-Fletcher and Qualter, 2010, p.907) and they became demoralised and confused about their roles and professional purposes (Hammersley-Fletcher and Strain, 2008, p.3). It is even argued (Rorty, 1989, Neilsen and Kinghorn, 2008) that creating a completely egalitarian society within our contemporary western economic structures is contradictory and affects the distribution of leadership in relation to recognition and exploitation, discussed further in 2.5.

1.4.2 Ethos in Playing for Success Centres

The National foundation of Educational Research (NfER) evaluation for PfS (Sharp *et al.*, 2007, p.35) found that PfS Centres carried a different 'ethos' and

'attitude' to schools, possibly because students participated voluntarily, to create a 'climate for learning.' The PfS initiative expected there to be a strong moral purpose and commitment in delivering to children and young people. Individuals may have joined the Centres out of altruism. However, it is also possible that this ethos was nurtured in them. The PfS initiative embraced two particular interventions that emphasised the importance of values and ethos connected to ECM (Sharp *et al.*, 2007, p.39). The first was Social Emotional Aspects of Learning (SEAL), introduced to schools in 2007/8, as a whole-school approach to promoting social and emotional skills (DCSF, 2007, p.4). It used the five domains of Goleman's (1995) model of emotional intelligence. These are self-awareness, self-regulation (managing feelings), motivation, empathy, and social skills (Humphrey, Lendrum and Wigelsworth, 2010). The data from nine schools studied (DfE, 2010) was consistent with previous research (Greenberg *et al.*, 2005; Durlak and DuPre, 2008) and found the willingness of staff and their skills were significant factors in addition to time and resource allocation. The second intervention was the drive towards Personalised Learning (Hartley, 2010a), in which the teacher tailors the learning, and the learner develops skills to tailor his own learning, equipping him or her for life. The Labour MP Alan Milburn told the Fabian society in 2005: 'Doing things to people will no longer do. Doing things with them is the key,' claiming Personalised Learning furthered the cause for social justice and engaged the voice of the learner. It urged Local Authorities to involve learners in various aspects of democratic life but the legitimacy of this contribution from learners could be superficial and was not always taken seriously (Morrison, 2009, p.159). But Personalised Learning did encourage leading for learning and offered opportunities to promote social justice for pupils and teachers (Gunter, 2001; Ribbins and Gunter, 2002; Lingard *et al.*, 2003, Shields, 2004). Basing what we teach on our own ethical development was thought to develop creative and positive identity choices for children and young people (Erikson, 1974, Starratt, 2012, Hawkes, 2013). Head-teachers recognised that moral responsibility and promoting and modelling respect and trust were crucial values (NCTL, 2010).

As with the Extended Schools agenda, when the Coalition Government came to power in 2010 it dropped the Every Child Matters agenda. However the staff in

the Centres and a large majority of educational establishments continued to use the framework. The continuing organisations may have become more influential in the ethos of the Centres' leadership.

1.4.3 Tools that encouraged the distribution of leadership in PfS

Although not stipulated in the same way by the PfS initiative as for the pupils, during the period with Government funding, there were also aims to raise educational standards within the staff team. Harnessing two tools in particular, the DfES ensured high quality provision was delivered in the PfS Centres (2011) through whole staff involvement in evaluation and self-appraisal which supported and nurtured leadership distribution. The first tool, Critical Friendship (CF), described as a 'catalyst for changing' thinking or behaviour (MacBeath and Jardine, 1998, p.42) and 'essential for success' (Fullan, 2001, p.192), originated in the 1970s and was attributed to Desmond Nuttall (1944-93) as explained by Lowe-Wincentsen (2017, p.108). Critical Friends were employed by the DfES as knowledgeable and experienced outsiders to the Centres, who supported staff towards self-improvement, raising standards and positive change through questioning and feedback. They were often Centre Managers from other parts of England and had been trained in the PfS approach to distributed leadership. Their role was to monitor but also offer constructive criticism, in an 'atmosphere of openness and trust' (Swaffield, 2005, p.44), allowing centre Staff to explore issues openly without fear of censure. They supported the centre managers in PfS to make 'reflexive deliberation' (Archer, 2003, p.26), question themselves about their own decisions and actions. However, the CF also became an advocate and a negotiator when issues or misunderstandings arose within the three-way partnership and by working with a centre manager in some ways they were accepting the distribution of leadership from them and sharing in the leadership of a Centre.

The second tool was the 'Quality in Study Support' (QiSS, 2014) national kite mark that required an evidence-based portfolio arranged under fifteen themes and provided a 'mechanism for quality assurance and evidence of impact'. This would then be made available to external agencies and stakeholders including Ofsted, parents and governors. It echoed aspects of DL such as communication, ethos, empowering staff, and sharing the expertise of others

and provided evidence for Ofsted inspectors who from 1992, were required to report publically on the spiritual, moral, cultural (SMSC) aspects of the curriculum (Hawkes, 2010, p. 229). Both Centres investigated had gained the QiSS kite mark at various levels. Centre A had revalidated twice at Advanced level with the required learning team of stake holders presenting to scrutineers rather than the Manager to demonstrate the distribution of leadership. Acting as CFs the managers of the PfS Centres also supported other educational establishments to obtain recognition (PfS, 2011). The following section considers a particular content to the activities delivered in the Centres during the period of research.

1.4.4 Olympic and Paralympic programmes in the Centres

As establishments delivering educational activities related to sport, PfS Centres naturally incorporated the Olympics and Paralympics theme into their programmes in the run-up and during the Games. Projects at the Centres ran in partnership with the national Cultural Olympiad activities from 2008 and the activities were based upon the ideals of 'Olympism' developed by the founder of the modern Olympic Movement, Baron Pierre de Coubertin (president of the International Olympic Committee from 1896 - 1925). Differing from other sporting events, the Olympic Movement was officially linked to an ideology and set of principles, values, and beliefs (McNamee, 2014) and an 'understanding of its educational mission' was vital to the Olympic idea (Gessman, 1992, p.33). Coubertin (1937, p.54) believed participation and cooperation were just as important as competing and winning and developed desirable characteristics of personality. He saw Olympism as a way of embedding moral attitudes and reforming society through sport. This theme ran in parallel to the Centres' existing aim of using sport to raise attainment and achievement and possibly strengthened positive attitudes relating to this ethos.

In particular the Olympic and Paralympic London Organising Committee's (LOCOG) 'Get Set' programmes developed the ideals of Olympism into the key values of: Respect, Excellence, Friendship, Courage, Determination, Inspiration and Equality. Adopting the LOCOG values, PfS ran its own project nationwide called 'Pass it On,' which was awarded the 'Inspire Mark' by LOCOG in 2009. By discussing the values in the programmes it is suggested staff were made conscious of what behaviour and values they modelled. This awareness may

have impacted on their willingness to participate in the distribution of leadership. Noddings, (1992, p.60) and Hawkes (2013, p.142) believe that by demonstrating trust, honesty, compassion, open-mindedness, and consideration, teaching and leading can be affected and values are a framework for life. Elmore (2000, p.15) refers to distributed leadership as 'a set of values as for how to approach a task' and DL commentators (Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2001, Gronn, 2002, Halverson *et al.*, 2007, Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009) all identify values as being an important aspect of DL's success.

Recognising this overlap in thinking this thesis explores the similarities between the Games Values and those of the ideals of DL presented in Appendix Y. For example the Olympic and Paralympic value of 'respect' is seen as important in DL in the development of trust and morale (Davies and Davies, 2006, p.34), the value of 'courage' is seen as important in DL in relation to taking initiative, self-evaluating, taking on new educational cultures to 'share knowledge' (Harris, 2007, p.321), sharing leadership and re-thinking power concepts (Murphy, 2009, p.183) and the value of 'equality' is seen as important in DL in relation to recognising individual's specific expertise (Oduro, 2004, p.1), making decisions together to create 'people wisdom' (Woods and Gronn, 2009, p.447) and creating opportunities for staff to exercise leadership, (Spillane *et al.*, 2001, p.24).

However, the Games not only promotes positive values but highlight negative life values as a result of issues relating to performance-enhancing drugs, commercial exploitation of children by sponsors, intense national rivalry and biased selection of host cities (Torres, 2011, Maguire *et al.*, 2008). Nevertheless, Olympism is still portrayed as an idealism that society desires. Teetzel, (2012), MacAloon (2008), Chatziefstathiou (2012) and Kelly, (2013), see it as a way to discuss problematic values in the classroom such as fairness, equality, and ethical behaviour in relation to globalization. The environment, poverty, terrorism and natural disasters, inequality, exploitation, lack of freedom, human rights violations have become educational resources. While Binder (2010) argues that Olympic educators should have an imaginative and holistic vision for teaching Olympic values, neither her 'Be A Champion in Life' (Binder, 2000) or her tool kit for the International Olympic Committee (IOC) (Binder, 2012),

suggest how to lead these programmes. The UK bid claimed the Olympics and Paralympics would inspire a generation of young people to make healthy lifestyle choices and raise aspirations to achieve their potential (Armour and Dagkas, 2012). Naul (2008, p.164) maintained this happened mainly through Olympic education delivered as morally enriching experiences after school hours, but there are no statistics to prove it did or that it impacted on the distribution of leadership in the Centres studied.

Despite projects based on Games Values taking place nationally for over a decade in the lead-up to and during the 2012 Games, there is still a concern that our society is lacking in values. This concern has driven education ministers, such as Michael Gove, to make 'Britishness a systematic part of schooling, suggesting its values to be 'fairness, tolerance, and the rule of law' (Paton and Hope, 2014). Acknowledgement of values is now looked for in school inspections (Hawkes, 2010). But this is problematic as values are interpreted and given different priority and status by different individuals and groups. To add to this the values connected to the Olympics and Paralympic Games are conceptually confusing and difficult to define in relation to specific activity that could be measured. They involve nouns such as 'trust' and 'care', conditions such as 'freedom' and 'equality,' personal attributes such as 'honesty' and 'determination' and notions such as 'respect' and 'friendship.' This confusion is also discussed later in relation to the concepts around DL in 2.6 that are equally hard to define and measure. The 'universal charm and essence' connecting the Games to humanity (Torres, 2010, p.3) was said to have a more powerful impact than economic factors (Chalkley and Essex, 1999, Cashman, 2006). Critics (Cazorla, *et al.*, 2011) claimed that the values of Olympism were disconnected from today's realities. Smith, (2002), and Lenskyj, (2008) observe a gradual disenchantment and Torres (2006) questions whether it was actually possible to be true to Coubertin's idea of Olympism. It could be argued that the challenges of meeting the ideals of Distributed Leadership, to be discussed in more detail in the following Chapter, are comparable to meeting the ideals of Olympism and similar lessons can be learnt from both which might be shared across scholarly thinking.

This section has looked specifically about the political backdrop for the PfS Centres studied in this thesis and the tools that had been adopted to support

the Centres achieve the outcomes desired of them. However, it also illuminates why there was an interest in the distribution of leadership discussed further in Chapter Two. It could be argued that the ideals of Distributed Leadership embody the philosophies behind building social capital and achieving social justice, discussed above, and it was another tool to support them.

1.5 Research questions for this thesis

As previously stated this thesis aims to investigate the distribution of leadership in Extended Learning Activities (ELAs), delivered through the particular Government initiative of 'Playing for Success' (PfS). Over the last two decades in England, 'Distributed Leadership' (DL) has become a popular term in education. From my experience of being a manager to Centre A and now it's line-manager and a partner to Centre B I am aware that the term 'Distributed Leadership' is not used by the staff in the Centres to describe the leadership approach adopted by staff. However, from reading leadership literature for prior assignments in the Doctorate I am undertaking I believe much of the practice in the Centres could be recognised as attempting to achieve the DL ideals to support them to reach their goals. In particular I believe these ideals were reinforced through the training offered by the PfS initiative created by the Government. However, I believe that the term is misleading and confusing in relation to what DL aims to promote, such as democracy and social justice, explored further in 2.6.1. The word 'distributed' implies there is a 'distributor,' an overall person in power creating 'a pattern of social relations structured not for education but for domination' Allix (2000, p.18). Coupled with 'leadership', 'distributed' is counter-intuitive, leaving power relations 'blurred, multiple, ambiguous and contradictory' (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.296). The emphasis on distributing leadership in the PfS Centres and my own belief that it was good practice were challenged when I read the leadership literature. I am therefore curious about the true nature of distributing leadership and its effects in the Centres and this has driven me to carry out this thesis. By doing this study I wish to consider the efficacy of distributing leadership in future for practitioners and policy makers.

The previous sections in this Chapter have introduced the focus of this thesis and provided a context for it. The three research questions presented here

underpin the study and the following Chapters are structured to provide an answer to them. They are:

1. What does the leadership distribution for extended learning activities look like in Playing for Success centres?
2. How and why might the leadership be distributed in these Centres?
3. What implications can be drawn about the efficacy of distributing leadership in future extended learning activities?

1.6 Theoretical framework for this study

A theoretical framework has been developed from two strands in the literature: Distributed Leadership (Spillane, 2006) and Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) (Engeström, 1987). Concepts borrowed from the 'Distributed Leadership Perspective' (Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2004, p.10) are deemed appropriate for this interpretative study as they consider everyone involved in leadership activity whatever their role, the tools they use and the influence of the environment. This is important as in the consideration of the distribution of leadership it is necessary to look at more than just the formal leader is carrying out leadership responsibilities. However, this Perspective is limited to looking at 'what,' 'where' and 'who' as can be seen in MacBeath *et al's* study (2007) and needs more constraint to provide a focus on what should be examined and a structured framework to peel off the contextual layers to provide meaning (Cole, 1996; Bronfenbrenner, 1999) to be able to question 'why' and 'how'. The need for a research tool that examines leadership in situ (Gronn, 2000, p.317) was important. Therefore theories relating to general leadership in relation to their environment were explored. These included Institutional Theory (Powell and DiMaggio, 1999) that considers the norms, rules, and definitions of the environment that constrain and enable leadership, but it was not felt to be acceptable as it does not address how social actors make sense of or shape their environments and reflect on their interaction with it. Complexity Science (Ulh-Bien and Ospina, 2012) was considered which concentrates on how organisations increase their complexity to the level of the environment, but it was rejected for not simplifying and rationalizing structures within the distribution of leadership. Contingency theories (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007) were also explored for their particular view of the context and how the leadership type changes to meet contextual needs, but it was felt it paid

less attention to the relationship between the elements in the activity to help explain how and why the distribution of leadership is taking place.

However, CHAT, already put forward as a possible framework by DL scholars (Gronn, 2002, Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2001), appeared to combine many of the attributes of the above theories whilst also addressing their failings. Due to its overlap in sociological concepts found in the ideals of DL and the Distributed Leadership Perspective, explained further in 3.2.2, it was deemed appropriate for this study. CHAT is flexible and reflexive in nature and does not come with a 'rule book' or hypothesis as to how to achieve consistent outcomes (Murphy, 2009) relevant for a study that is not trying to measure 'distributedness'. This thesis accepts that CHAT is a promising approach for rethinking leadership and agrees with Gronn (2000, p.317) who says 'if our perspectives of leadership are to continue to serve useful analytical and practical purposes, then they must be grounded in a theory of action.' CHAT sees 'activity' as the unit of analysis (Engeström, 1987) and by combining it with the concepts of the Distributed Leadership Perspective this study was able to answer 'how' and 'why' leadership distribution takes place. These questions were felt by Spillane and Healey (2010, p.277) to be ignored in previous DL studies but need to be addressed for future practitioners and policy makers who wish to consider the efficacy of distributing leadership.

While Harris and Spillane, (2008) applaud CHAT's ability to consider the interaction between the actors, in 2012 when the research was carried out, illustrations and explanations as to how to use CHAT in relation to leadership were difficult to find. This thesis has addressed this lack of practical demonstration by creating a 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution.' By mapping the concepts from DL onto CHAT activity systems it is able to examine where the contradictions or barriers are between the elements making up the actions found in the distribution of leadership. The final stage of analysis considers what this thesis terms as the 'Alignments of Distribution' against the body of work on DL discussed in 2.6.2, to understand what 'conditions are needed' for the distribution of leadership to thrive (Harris, 2008, p.183). These help support the researcher to appreciate the implications for leadership distribution efficacy in relation to its future use in Extended Learning provision.

There is still a lack of practical guidance as to how to apply CHAT. The book *Activity Theory in Education, Research and Practice* (Gedera and Williams, 2016) stems from a 'quest for better understanding' and is a 'much needed collection of practical experiences, theoretical insights and empirical research findings that are still valid' (Engeström, 2016, p.vii). But half of the book is made up of studies from New Zealand with others coming from Tanzania, Denmark, America, and Chile, and only one from Singapore looking at DL using CHAT. This investigation contributes to the UK base. As discussed in more detail later in 7.4, this thesis responds to the confusion and contradictions surrounding leadership distribution by presenting a new concept. It explains how the theoretical lens developed could become a tool for professional development and demonstrates how practitioners could use it to research their own practice to learn about how and why leadership distribution is employed to support their educational organisation's needs. Though it compares two Extended Learning environments, this lens could also be applied to a single case.

1.7 Research design for this thesis

This thesis's epistemological and ontological position sits within the interpretivist paradigm that describes seeing people's knowledge, interpretations, and experiences as meaningful properties of social reality (Mason, 2002, p.64). 'Subjectivity' is accepted as an integral part of the research process, and the investigator has accepted the view that the world consists of human interactions and perceptions, involving themselves with the participants. She agrees there can be no 'objective knowledge gained from a neutral or perspective-free position' and what is 'real' to the researcher may be influenced by her emotions (Scott and Usher, 1999, p.31). Attempts to see respondents' accounts as potentially 'the truth' are abandoned and culturally rich methods are considered whereby the researcher and participants can 'in concert, generate plausible accounts of the world' (Silverman, 2005, p.154).

This is an exploratory case study, looking at two study support centres with very similar aims and operational models but overseen by two different organisations with potentially different values. With only two cases it rejects the 'replication logic' that Yin, (1994, p.46) argues for, but believes having more than one case is more compelling. As discussed in more detail in 4.4 this thesis borrows key

questions from Goodrick's (2014, p.6) comparative case study approach. Because the two cases under study share the same staff roles and operational structures it is important to avoid over-generalising from one or more causal circumstances the Centres had in common (Rose and Mackenzie, 1991). It uses their comparisons to help answer, how and why leadership distribution is happening. The illustrative nature of CHAT activity systems employed in the theoretical lens developed for this thesis means the activity of leadership distribution can be directly compared visually (see Appendix W). The samples are 'purposive' as the Centres are unique in their location and function, and are selected as examples for an in-depth focus to learn from (Creswell, 2005). They were opportunistic and critical samples as they both happened to be running Games related programmes during 2012 but homogeneous to other PfS centres in the way they operated and their sporting theme. Within the interpretative paradigm the study collected qualitative data from two London based PfS Centres, delivering Extended Learning from Football Club stadiums. The data was generated by three methods; documentary analysis, observations and interviews. The researcher tried to avoid being inventive or fictional whilst accepting her 'voice is both an interpretation and itself in need of interpretation' (Scott and Usher, 1999, p.18).

1.8 Structure of this thesis

This thesis consists of seven Chapters. This first Chapter has been an introduction to the investigation to provide a background to the study. Chapter Two is a review of the literature, beginning with a general perspective of leadership and how it is distributed through to a focus on the concepts of the term Distributed Leadership. It then turns to particular research frameworks for the study of Distributed Leadership. Chapter Three argues for the appropriateness of the theoretical framework and an explanation as to how the Distributed Leadership Perspective was combined with CHAT to act as a structure for the qualitative research methodology. Chapter Four explains how the methodology was developed and the particular concerns addressed for the chosen research methods. Chapter Five presents the findings and analysis within the themes that emerged from the data. Chapter Six discusses them within the structure of the research questions posed and the literature review. It

is presented in sections that are then taken to form a new model and perspective on the distribution of leadership. Finally Chapter Seven draws conclusions from the findings, analysis and discussion to answer the research questions and makes recommendations for others wishing to practise leadership distribution in Extended Learning Activities. It also considers the limitations of the study including those in the methodology, positionality of the researcher as an insider and use of CHAT in the theoretical framework. Within this final Chapter the new model a 'Universal Leadership Culture', is presented created from the concepts realised in the discussion of the findings.

1.9 Conclusion

This Chapter set out the aim of this thesis to investigate leadership distribution in Extended Learning Activities (ELAs) in two Playing for Success (PfS) Centres, delivering Olympic and Paralympic related education programmes in 2012. As activities generally happen in after school hours, they offer additional learning opportunities for pupils which supports schools to raise attainment and aspirations concerning future professions and develop positive attitudes towards their own potential. The PfS initiative, established in 1997, was a vehicle for New Labour's (1997-2010) key agendas of Extended Schools, with the aim to build social capital, and Every Child Matters, to achieve social justice. These became an influential context to the development of leadership in the Centres. The tools of Critical Friendship, the Quality in Study Support kite mark and the 2012 Games Values that were integral to the ELAs run may have also enhanced the approaches to leadership.

While the researcher believes the post-heroic approach of Distributed Leadership is practised in the Centres she maintains like others (Bolden, Petrov and Gosling, 2009) there is confusion about what the term means. This thesis prefers to refer to 'leadership distribution' in general. It considers the ideals of DL as a list of potential attributes for all leadership that is distributed and has used it accordingly throughout this study. This thesis has created a Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution by adopting the descriptive approach of DL scholars (Gronn, 2002; MacBeath, 2004; Spillane, 2006; Hargreaves and Fink, 2006; Leithwood, Mascal and Strauss, 2009) but combining it with the structure CHAT, as suggested by Gronn (2000, p.317) to respond to Cole's (1996)

request for more constraint to provide meaning. It also answers Spillane and Healey's (2010) demand for more attention to research study operations and measures to consider how leadership and management relate to school and other educational outcomes. Judging by recent literature (Gedera and Williams, 2016) there still appears to be little demonstration of how CHAT is used in educational research despite the calls for it, which this study wishes to achieve. This study has also developed 'Alignments of Distribution,' from DL theories (Gronn, 2002; MacBeath, 2004; Spillane, 2006; Leithwood, Mascal and Strauss, 2009; Hargreaves and Fink, 2006) to support the analysis of the findings to understand what models of leadership distribution existed in the Centres and what the implications for efficacy might be.

This thesis contributes to UK research on educational leadership distribution, beneficial for practitioners, policy makers and trainers who wish to draw from recent local examples. It joins the few studies on leadership of Extended Learning Activities, especially those that are Olympic and Paralympic related. This first Chapter has provided the background and purpose to this thesis and the next Chapter will provide a review of the literature that supports it.

2 Chapter Two – Review of the Literature

2.1 Introduction

This Chapter is a review of the literature that has informed and guided this thesis and it begins by discussing leadership in general and comparing it with management. This is followed by a consideration of what leadership means in Extended Learning Activities (ELAs). This Chapter considers the move towards Post Heroic and democratic leadership styles encouraged by New Labour's demand for flatter structures. It discusses the interchangeable terms and conceptual confusions that have resulted before examining in more detail the dominant concept in the UK of 'Distributed Leadership' (DL). Because of the lack of a clear definition of what DL means, highlighted in the introduction of Chapter One above, this thesis prefers to think of DL as desired ideals of leadership distribution in general and in relation to how Centres A and B have interpreted and exploited them. The Chapter ends with an account of how the research approaches found in DL literature (Gronn, 2002, MacBeath, 2004, Spillane, 2006, Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009) have contributed to the theoretical framework of this thesis.

2.2 Leadership

This section begins with a discussion about how leadership was seen leading up to and during the last two decades in England when Playing for Success (PfS) Centres were in operation. Leadership permeates all areas of organizational life but there is little about leadership in the small body of Extended Learning related literature (MacBeath *et al.*, 2001, Swaffield, 2004; DfES, 2006; MacBeath *et al.*, 2007; Sharp *et al.*, 1999, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2007; Cummings *et al.*, 2011; Martin, Sharp and Mehta, 2013). This review therefore begins by focusing on the general leadership literature (e.g. Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958; Hersey and Blanchard, 1993; Bolman and Deal, 2003; Fletcher, 2004; Simkins, 2005; Ford, Harding and Learmonth, 2008; Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.292; Edwards, 2011, p.5). Centres A and B developed over the last decade when practitioners and policy makers recognised that development of leadership skills are essential to organisations in England. They operated in a climate when there was a drive for standards-based reform in the belief that the

high performance of school leaders resulted in renewal and change. This focus was illustrated by the establishment of a National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) in 2000, the mandatory National Professional Qualifications for Headship (NPQH) from April 2004, the increase in leadership development courses (McCall, 1998, Day *et al.*, 2000; Gill, 2006), the focus on leadership skills in MBAs (Master of Business Administration) programmes and degrees in modern business schools (Gill, 2004, Gabriel, 2005). The importance of leadership was also underlined in reports from the Central Government Cabinet Office (1999), Performance and Innovation Unit (2001), Home Office (2001) and DfES (2003). As part of a Government initiative it is fair to presume that the PfS training for Centres nationally also placed the same emphasis on leadership and that this influenced leadership approaches employed in the Centres studied.

Although the most formal leader in these Centres is known as the 'Manager', 'leadership' is the main focus of this study and it is therefore important to discuss what the terms 'leadership' and 'management' mean as they are often confused (Zaleznik, 1977, Bennis and Nanus, 1985, Yukl, 2006). 'Leadership' has become an 'eternally contested concept' (Grint, 2000), and it remains controversial. Management however, is less complicated and is often related more to maintaining efficient and effective organisation (Bush, 2006). The definitions of prominent scholars, whose work is relevant to this thesis, are presented chronologically in Table 2-1 below:

Writer	Leadership	Management
Kotter (1988)	Change-oriented process of visioning, networking, and building relationships.	Planning, organising and controlling.
Cuban (1988)	Initiating change to reach goals, moving towards potential.	Maintaining current arrangements.
Bolman and Deal (2003)	Both artists and analysts, flexible and versatile to reframe their experience. Constantly seeking new issues and discovering	Dealing with organisational confusion and chaos by establishing order and finding simplicity.

	possibilities.	
Hudson (2002)	Leadership is seen in terms of long-term vision, broad purpose and direction inspiring people to do more. Effectiveness and looking forward to and creating a better future.	Management is seen as meeting current objectives, dealing with today's problems: the here and now.
Coleman (2005)	Inspirational.	Monitoring and controlling organizational activities, making decisions, and allocating resources.
Jovanovic and Sajfert (2010)	Directing group members towards the achievement of objectives.	Managerial skills are a prerequisite for leadership.

Table 2-1 Difference between leadership and management

According to the descriptions of the scholars above we can see that management is involved with the practicalities of organising people and resources whereas leadership focuses on fulfilling goals by strategy and vision. Bottery (2004) and Coleman (2005), suggest that leadership and management can be isolated or, as Hudson (2002) suggests, act as a continuum that needs balance to ensure progression. Burgoyne and Williams (2007, p.3) maintain:

Leadership is more to do with the visionary, creative, motivational and inspirational aspects of organising, whereas managing is more to do with the effective operation of useful routines.

However, this thesis argues that the definitions in Table 2-1 above are simplistic and there are blurred lines between the two, which are intertwined and cannot be separated. As Spillane and Diamond (2007, p.104) state 'it is difficult to lead without managing' and in practice leadership and management should be considered simultaneously with a Head-teacher or Centre Manager needing a 'certain competence across a range of management and leadership skills' (Brighouse, 2007, p.4). Their thoughts are an important concept in this thesis.

This interconnecting relationship is illustrated by Bolman and Deal (2003, pp.xiii-xiv):

An organisation that is over-managed but under-led will eventually lose any kind of sense of purpose and spirit whilst a poorly managed organization with a strong and charismatic leader may soar briefly, only to experience a significant downfall shortly thereafter.

However, as demonstrated by its changing label in the last half-century, the leadership and management literature shows that by 1990 the interest in leadership as a skill that could transform organisation culture had superseded that of management. Terms such as 'educational administration' became 'educational management,' then more recently 'educational leadership.' Adding further complication, individuals in formal leadership roles are still expected to carry out activities such as 'people management' or appraisals often referred to as 'performance management'.

As discussed above the formal leaders of the Centres studied are referred to as Managers. The teams are so small there is no opportunity for these to be considered as separate roles and in their management activity they are incorporating behaviour described, in table 2-1 above, to belong to leadership. It could be argued that when the Manager is distributing their leadership this is through the distribution of management tasks. It could also be seen that nurturing leadership skills needs to be carefully managed. Where leadership and management begins or ends is therefore difficult to un-pick. Due to this overlap this study has chosen to include the distribution of all management tasks that contribute to the direction and vision of the Centres as part of the leadership activity and when this thesis refers to 'leadership' it is including these relevant management activities.

2.3 The relationship between leaders and followers

To distribute leadership there need be individuals, other to the formally appointed leader, involved. This section discusses the changing concepts around leadership in relation to leaders and followers. In the last fifty years there have been many attempts to define what the characteristics of leadership should be. In addition to 'distributed' (Spillane, 2006) this has ranged from 'transactional' (Burns, 1978) and 'visionary' (Nanus, B. 1992) to 'servant'

(Greenleaf, 2002) and 'transformational' (Storey, 2004). In the 1990s leadership research (Lord and Maher, 1993; Greenfield, 1995; Behn, 1998) led educational policy makers to believe that formally appointed leaders were superior to their followers. This view was underpinned by psychologists, historians, and political scientists (Hollander, 1993; Bass, 1990; Billsberry, 1996; Klenke, 1996; Chemers, 2000) who claimed that 'great leaders' possessed specific traits such as courage, charisma, high intelligence and good moral fibre. Many organisations still follow this traditional view that leadership is driven by staff who possess particular leadership traits (Simkins, 2005, p.12). This outlook is encouraged by perceptions about the behaviour of leaders and followers based upon the stereotyping of gender, race, class and sex, with their images and actions shaped by cultural and religious expectations (Blackmore, 2013, p.151). This influences decisions made by formal leaders as to who to distribute leadership to. However, some scholars (Simonton, 1994; Pfeffer and Sutton 2006; Yukl, 2006; Thorpe, Gold and Lawler, 2011) argue there is limited empirical evidence on what impact individuals in leadership positions have on an organisation or what criteria are needed to assess them. In reaction to these views, Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2013, p.38, p.88) argue that leadership is a strategic choice and not a function of personality and leaders should switch between styles as circumstances dictate. These include being coercive, authoritative, affiliative, democratic and pace-setting. They suggest these come from four 'Emotional Intelligence Competencies': self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. This highlights the need for a formal leader, in the position of distributing to others, to have good moral judgement and the ability to make ethical decisions. These competencies are reflected in the ethos of the Olympic and Paralympic values programmes and Government ECM agendas discussed in Chapter One, which might have influenced who and why the leadership was distributed in the Centres under case study.

Early scholarly discussion about leadership centred on one person seen as the formal leader with less attention given to their interactions with the followers who might influence leadership. For example, the work of Fayol (1949) underestimated the mental capacities and potential for conflict in organisations by thinking about organisations, as 'people without people' (Bennis, 1959). In

contrast to Fayol, Tannenbaum and Schmidt, (1958 p.96) explored the interaction between leaders and followers. See fig.2-1 below:

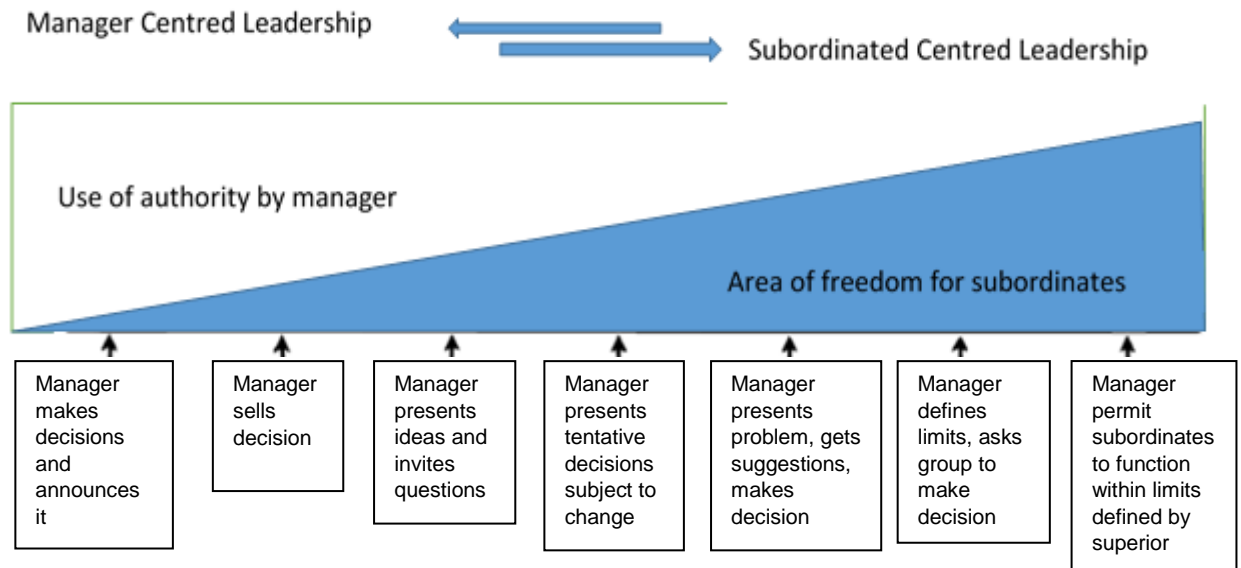


Figure 2-1 Continuum of leadership (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958, p.96)

Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1958, p.96) Continuum of Leadership model demonstrates that leaders and followers are contingent on each other, a relationship also noted later by Weick (1979, p.89). The diagram moves through stages from one end where the manager makes all the decisions, 'selling them' to the followers (subordinates), encouraging participation by allowing followers to question decisions, to the other end where followers can contribute within defined limits. However, while accepting an interdependency this Continuum of Leadership model, it never wholly relinquishes the manager's role in controlling the situation, acting as the 'distributor' of leadership, discussed in 1.2. Nor does it explain what influence the followers might have over the leadership, a common failing of many leadership theories noted by Gronn (1999).

The participation of followers in leadership may rely on other factors that are less obvious. According to Adair (1973, p.10), the situation (the type of task, the degree of crisis and the time available) and the group knowledge, attitude and experience will determine which action is most appropriate. As these improve, subordinate-centred leadership will become more appropriate, dependent on shifting with the situation. However, Hersey and Blanchard (1977, p.161)

rejected Adair's notion that leaders should work to change the situation, and argue followers were important in all situations, 'not only because individually they accept or reject the leader, but because they actually determine whatever personal power the leader may have.' Hersey and Blanchard (1977) explored the relationships between levels of ability and willingness in the 'Situational Leadership Model', illustrated in Fig. 2-2 below:

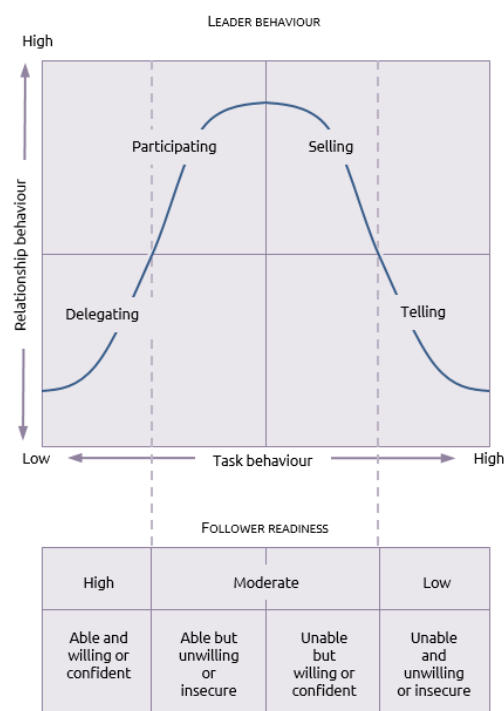


Figure 2-2 Situational Leadership Model (Hersey and Banchard, 1977)

Their Situational Leadership Model centres on two dimensions of development level as ability and willingness. It suggests these might vary at different times within the same organisation depending on motivation, confidence, ability or altruism. The revised model (Blanchard, Zigarmi and Nelson, 1993, p.27), refers to competence instead of ability because feedback from practitioners had informed the authors that ability was equated with natural ability and it refers to commitment instead of willingness as they argue in some countries being unwilling was interpreted as stubborn. However, this thesis will continue to refer to ability and willingness where relevant. The researcher is comfortable with using the term ability and in relation to willingness, she feels a member of staff might be committed to raising pupil's attainment but might not be committed to the Manager's approach and therefore participate in the leadership opportunity

offered to them to support the pupil not necessarily the Manager. Recently Giebels, *et al.*, (2016) found that pro-active personalities might be more likely to take the initiative and express willingness, if given autonomy, provided they were adequately skilled and experienced. It is possible therefore that the distribution of leadership will be accepted by participants who are 'ready,' meaning they are both willing and have ability, and confidence in their ability to take on the leadership distributed to them.

Willingness to accept the distribution of leadership is linked to complex issues in relation to power. Early studies by Asch (1956) and Milgram (1965) demonstrated the extent to which people could be led into participation, but where willingness begins or obedience ends has remained vague. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) believe that power could gain compliance or commitment from others but they thought the leader's approach was determined by how much power followers perceived a leader to have. Where this power comes from is explored by Bacon (2011, p.3) who states that it stems from the position or participation in an organisation, such as: role power, resource power, information power, network power, reputation power or from personal assets, such as knowledge power, expressiveness power, attraction power, character power, history power (familiarity and history with that person). Compliance then varies according to the power resource deployed overtly or covertly. When setting goals and objectives, leaders are in a position where they can exert their will over others by using political behaviour or influential techniques (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007, p.828). Used negatively, power can hinder leadership distribution (Fink, 2010). Perceptions of followers and leaders and stereotyping of roles can lead to harmful assumptions about the capabilities of individuals (Zimbardo, Maslach and Haney, 2000). Power is often exercised through tone of voice, gestures, or facial expressions (Lovat, 2010) and whether overtly or covertly, this behaviour could result in negative relationships, especially where there are personality differences (Schein, 1990, p.109). If participants unwillingly accept the distribution of leadership, beyond their job description, this can lead to exploitation, staff members not cooperating or even leaving. Those in formal leadership roles may also be reluctant to distribute leadership and share their 'power' or those participating in the distribution of leadership may use their new 'powerful' opportunity to influence the leadership of the

organisation negatively. These points are discussed further in relation to the Distributed Leadership literature in 2.5 below.

This Chapter will now pay more attention to the theories developed within leadership approaches in education. The following sections will build towards the concepts behind the Distributed Leadership Perspective (Spillane, 2006), presented in 2.6.1 that was found to be appropriate to this study as a rounded and inclusive viewpoint that includes the individual focuses.

2.4 Leadership approaches in education

This review begins by looking to the developments in educational leadership in England that might have influenced leadership approaches in the PfS Centres more directly. During the establishment of the PfS Centres nationally the traditional idea of Transactional leadership in education, made up of clear structures with a relationship based on tasks traded with a salary or incentives was replaced with Transformational leadership which saw Transactional leadership to be exploitative as it did not always consider the needs of those that were led. Transformation leadership believed in raising consciousness of the significance of goals and outcomes and engaging followers with more than just rewards (Harris, 2003, Muijs *et al.*, 2006). Transformational leadership became prominent in England in the 1990s and its vision and inspiration created a popular ideology, which the academic and practitioner worlds adopted (Edwards, 2011).

The Extended Schools agenda (DfES, 2006) demanded educational establishments became more flexible and harnessed diverse expertise through networking and multi-agency practice to build social capital (Heifetz, 1994). Transformational approaches were seen as the way to secure organisational change and development (Elmore, 2000; Fullan, 2001). The Education Secretary of the time, Ed Balls (Balls, 2013, p.163), claimed heads were expected to be dynamic, visionary, risk-taking and entrepreneurial individuals who could 'turn around' histories of 'failure' deploying their personal qualities. As 'super heads' they went in to rescue schools and were 'trusted to give meaning to organizational life' (Northouse, 2004, p.198). Increasing number of tasks within complex institutions compelled Transformational leaders to share and distribute leadership (Hall and Southworth, 1997).

Policy makers aimed for Transformational leadership to engage followers but in reality it remained focused on a heroic figure who could transform a school through his or her own inspirational abilities. Whilst Transactional leadership was found to minimise work-place anxiety for followers, because it concentrated on clear organisational objectives (Sadeghi and Pihie, 2012), Transformational leadership was criticised (Chirichello, 1999) for being governed by the needs of the manager, a vehicle for control over teachers more likely to be accepted by the leader than the led. Huczynski and Buchanan (2007) argue that charismatic, visionary leaders might do more damage than good as they sought to encourage ever greater organizational transformation to achieve their vision, driving too hard and causing burn-out and initiative fatigue. Bolden, Petrov and Gosling (2009) and Coleman (2011), criticise the 'super heads', who had adopted Transformational leadership ideology, for not leaving any significant or lasting impression. A single head's autocratic leadership style might have been an asset while a school successfully passed through special measures, but leadership needed to be shared in order for this to continue and progress (Harris and Muijs, 2003). In effect Transformational leadership was not distributing leadership but was only sharing responsibilities, a shortcoming discussed further in 2.5.

As discussed in Chapter One, in most ELAs the staff team is much smaller than in school meaning that many individuals, not recognised as formal leaders, such as assistants, become involved in the leadership activity quietly behind the scenes. As one Centre Manager said of his ICT technician: 'His knowledge of the project is far more than simply dealing with the ICT side of things' (Sharp *et al.*, 2007, p.35). In ELAs there are only a few staff to designate responsibilities so the Manager and leader roles become the same and with only a full-time Manager, full or part-time Teacher, the Centres rely on the willingness and flexibility of sessional workers and volunteers, whose hours may change every week (Sharp *et al.*, 2007). These fluid professional relationships work in a different way from a contracted team in a school, with an inevitable impact on leadership activity within the Centres. Playing for Success (PfS, 2011) responded to the initiatives New Labour created to promote leadership (Hartley and Allison 2000; Storey 2004) and benefited from the guidance of Critical Friends (Swaffield, 2008) and the QiSS kite mark process discussed in section

1.5. However, when the Coalition Government (DfE, 2012) came in in the two years leading up to the period of research in 2012, funding for this finished and there was no replacement for previous support relating to leadership in Extended Learning. This lack of guidance for the leadership in the Centres might have impacted on the quality of the distribution of leadership.

Voluntary Sector Organisations (VSOs), as 'not for profit' projects, offer useful insights into ELA leadership as their activity is delivered with similar principles. As Gann (1996) explains, altruistic aims and values result in more democratic and shared forms of leadership and more emphasis on the agency of followers. Effective voluntary sector leaders were characterised as being passionate, energetic, enthusiastic and having integrity, trust, strategic perspective, knowledge, flexibility, focus, vision, inspiration, humility, motivating skills, networking ability, influence, resilience, self-confidence and courage (ACEVO, 2003, p.17). Despite Centre teachers in PfS being qualified, they did not receive equal pay and conditions as those in schools and tended to be driven by passion for the cause and have a more 'democratic' ethos like that found in VSOs. An element of this was noted in the last National Evaluation of Playing for Success (Sharp et al., 2007, p.35). The researchers interviewed a primary link teacher who describes his local PfS centre as having: 'A great team of people, they're committed to what they're doing, they give every evidence of enjoying what they're doing.' However, VSO hierarchies have been viewed negatively and those who characterised themselves as leaders are often perceived as 'getting above themselves' (ACEVO, 2003 p.18). While there was a value-led leadership which was supportive, encouraged change, allowed experimentation and innovation, was people-centred and encouraged individual growth and development, once professional management was introduced (Batsleer, 1995, p.235) it became 'fraught with dilemmas and pitfalls.' The difficulty of finding the correct balance is something this thesis seeks to address as PfS Centres operate with similar values and constraints.

2.5 The distribution of leadership

This section considers what the distribution of leadership is considered to be and the growing demand for it in education during the last two decades. In that period leadership became more democratic, encouraging and energising others to participate fully in all aspects of leadership and share information. Relying too

much on a single leader was found to be 'no longer fit for purpose' for how educationalists operate (Bolden, 2011, p. 253). Global economic integration, domestic deregulation and multiple and competing stakeholder environments have demanded flatter structures and team-based practice (Dunning 2009; Ojasalo 2008; Thorpe, Gold and Lawler, 2011). Based on the prevailing hierarchy and organizational symbolism, recognition was given to middle managers or informal leaders to create sustainable change. Traditional leadership was weakened by the increasing demands for inclusion and diversity (Blumen, 2000) and the growth of virtual learning, online networks and 'data-rich task environments' Gronn (2002, p.429). Collective decision-making and collaboration encouraged the development of a 'leaderful community' (MacBeath, 2003) that 'dispersed leadership' throughout an organisation. However, asking informal leaders to carry out leadership activity alongside their managers without any financial reward, often leads to conflicting ideas of what being a leader is (Cardno and Youngs, 2013). For this reason participating in leadership distribution has become complex, relying on behaviour and attitudes (Harris and Spillane, 2008).

There are many terms in the literature implying that leadership is not the monopoly or responsibility of just one person (Hosking, 1988, Barker, 2001). They are used interchangeably and are equally ambiguous and contested. They include: 'emergent-leadership' (Beck 1981), 'collaborative leadership' (Rosenthal, 1986), 'co-leadership' (Heenan and Bennis 1999), 'distributed' (Storey, 2004), 'shared' (Pearce, Manz and Sims, 2009), 'co-operative' (Hallinger and Heck, 2010), 'collective leadership' (Denis. Lamothe and Langley, 2001), 'dispersed leadership' (Ray, Clegg and Gordon, 2004, Gordon, 2010), 'democratic', 'devolved', 'co-operative', 'concurrent', 'co-ordinated', and 'relational' leadership (Bennett *et al.*, 2003, Oduro, 2004, Harris, 2007, Currie and Lockett, 2011). However, the dominant terms became 'shared' and 'distributed' (Hall and Southworth, 1997, p.108). Shared Leadership (SL) became prominent in management and organisational research (Manz and Sims, 2001; Pearce and Sims, 2002; Pearce and Conger, 2003 and Pearce, Manz and Sims, 2009), while concepts around Distributed Leadership (DL) came to the fore in educational research (Storey, 2004; Spillane, 2006; Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009). Spillane (2006) and Harris (2009)

expressed concerns about using SL and DL interchangeably claiming they were philosophically diverse. Fitzsimons, James and Denyer, (2011, p.314) argue they 'belonged to two different strands that had evolved with different concepts and ontological assumptions.' SL emanated from a collaborative social process involving those who share formal leadership roles (Hallinger and Heck, 2010), with a discrete individual sharing cognition (Carson, Tesluk and Marrone, 2007), while DL was also performed by those not in designated, formal leadership roles by stretching the cognition over both human actors and aspects of the context they are in, sharing knowledge and understanding, thus developing 'concertive action,' 'co-performance' or 'conjoint agency' (Gronn, 2002). Hunt (1991), Parry (1998), Bess and Goldman (2001) and Yukl (2006) agree that DL takes the concept of SL deeper by viewing leadership within a social system where context, processes and emotional elements can affect relational dynamics (Edwards *et al.*, 2013, p.6).

As the researcher began her investigation in the belief that DL is practised in the Centres she studied, it is important this thesis takes a closer look at the existing DL literature. DL was first identified by Gibb (1969, p.252) when there was a 'tendency for leadership to pass from one individual to another as the situation changes,' often initiated by the 'most active followers.' The term lay dormant until the 1990s when Barry (1991), Senge (1993) and Gregory (1996) started using it in articles, most notably in 'Distributed Leadership as a Unit of Analysis' (Gronn, 2002). It became a popular 'post-heroic' representation of leadership (Badaracco 2001, Khurana 2002, Gill, 2006, Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009) and was employed in a variety of different contexts such as business, health and social care (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.287). With the shift to devolve School governance there was a pressure on Schools to behave like businesses (MacBeath, 2004, p.16) and adopt a more distributed approach. However, broad-based leadership has to be skilfully executed (Durrant and Holden, 2006, p.1). As a result 'conscious attempts to disperse leadership' by a formal leader through task delegation were often confused with distributed leadership' (Gosling, Bolden and Petrov, 2009, p.10) and moving to DL as the 'polar opposite of the heroic' approach was described as 'dangerous' (Harris, 2009, Thorpe, Gold and Lawler, 2011). From the literature it is possible to see

that DL features cluster within themes including staff structures, sharing knowledge and skills, power, and values, explored below.

The first theme in the literature considers the impact that DL can have on staff structures. DL is described as a collective social process that aims to create flatter, fluid and flexible staff structures and was used to answer Extended School's demand for social capital by bringing networks, multiple actors and resources together. For example, by fostering a shared accountability for student learning (Hallinger and Heck, 2010), DL supported the strategy for school improvement (Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009, Harris and Spillane, 2008). Day and Harris (2002, p.961) describe communities of practice using 'horizontal power distribution' to make collective decisions with joint responsibilities but do not address issues concerning pay and accountability. Gronn (2009, p.383) suggests DL should be seen as 'leadership configuration' rather than 'distributed' because leadership could occur within a variety of situations and involve teams and networks within and between organizations in 'hybrid' forms of leadership. While it enables staff to share goals and spread the work-load (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.293) and Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss (2009, p.4) question if some patterns of distribution are more productive than others. For example, while some describe it as a bottom-up phenomenon (MacBeath, 2003) others claim it still requires top-down activity (Allix, 2000; Gunter, 2003). Therefore Gunter (2003, p.128) maintains it is more productive to think in terms of how teachers take up positions in relation to those who seek to do the distributing. Despite this, conceptual elasticity means that structures can be reconsidered to develop a 'dynamic organisational entity' (Harris, 2008, p.174).

The second theme in the literature considers how through DL knowledge and skills are shared. The interest in DL grew alongside the development of 'learning communities' and knowledge economies' (Hartley, 2010b) and leadership was encouraged as an ever-developing learning phenomenon and 'a matter of practice' MacBeath (2005, p.349). Through distribution, knowledge can be passed on to support other staff members learning to lead (Daniels and Edwards, 2012). This distributed cognition and information-sharing among colleagues promotes capacity building, but also leads to more power and rewards (Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009). Drawing from 'people wisdom'

(Davies and Davies, 2006, p.34), DL is said to harness diverse expertise and develop multi-agency working. Burke, Fiore and Salas (2003), Pearce and Conger (2003) and Mullins, (2007), point out that the contributions of colleagues with specialized expertise are vital when senior leaders do not have sufficient relevant information to make effective decisions. DL develops resourcefulness and participants who feel an invested interest in sharing their skills demonstrate potentially more commitment (Gronn, 2002). However York-Barr and Duke (2004), Murphy (2009) and Hartley (2010b) are concerned that ensuring DL happens could actually detract from the clarity of purpose of leading the learning to raising standards.

The third theme in the literature considers the theme of power in leader-follower relationships. The National College of Teaching and Learning (2004) believed that DL could address misconceptions that 'school leadership' equated to 'headship.' It promoted it as empowering people to exercise their initiative, seeing it as a strategy for increasing both administrative and teacher retention. DL Scholars (Spillane and Diamond, 2007, pp.150-15, Murphy (2009, p.181) emphasize the role played by Head Teachers in encouraging DL, but neither they nor the NCTL, (2004), explain how Head Teachers as 'distributors', put it in place. Hatcher (2005, p.255) sees a 'fundamental contradiction between distributed leadership and government-driven head-teacher managerialism' and argues that power might only be distributed within less hierarchical and truly democratic schools, an aim that seems impossible given the nature of responsibility in schools for the welfare of others. MacBeath (2004, p.20) accepts that with DL there is often a 'gap between the real and the ideal'. DL could simply be counterintuitive to the idea of leadership as it leaves 'nobody in charge' (Buchanan *et al.*, 2007 p.1067). Government agencies promoted DL in their guidance documents but continued to use hierarchical language. For instance the National Primary Strategy (DfES, 2003b) suggested DL serves a political purpose rather than an educational purpose. Power relations are 'blurred, multiple, ambiguous and contradictory' (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.296). By shifting the focus away from the attributes and behaviours of individuals to a more systemic perspective, DL encourages practitioners to consider the internal mechanics of education management (Harris, 2003). It reduces follower dependence by offering leadership opportunities (Heifetz,

1994), and increases interdependence minimizing the negative consequences typically associated with leadership succession (Fink, 2010). DL has a particularly valuable role where followers have the opportunity to challenge leaders to change their practice (Ritchie and Woods, 2007). In contrast Bottery (2004, p.22) believes DL could become little more than a form of managerial power whereby teachers might not be empowered but silenced in the process and just burdened with more work (Garman, 1990; Ritchie and Woods, 2007). Staff might feel uncomfortable about taking the initiative, if it meant going against school policy or losing a job. The sharing of information through DL is said to avoid alienation and relieve tensions around the moral use of power (Bogotch and Shields, 2014, p.1), which takes us to the next theme.

The fourth theme in the literature considers the values developed through the practice of DL. Elmore (2000, p.15) describes DL 'as a set of values for how to approach a task' that DL scholars (Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2001, Gronn, 2002, Halverson *et al.*, 2007, Leithwood *et al.*, 2009) believe shapes social norms. The workforce reforms demanded educationalists be more sociologically aware of their responsibilities as employers. To work effectively DL relies on emotional intelligence and empathy (Hawkes, 2013), which develops trust and a higher morale sense (Davies and Davies, 2006, Woods and Gronn, 2009). For example, the National Evaluation of the Primary Leadership Programme (Wade, McCrone and Rudd, 2007, p.67) found that Head-teachers felt DL was possible if they were in safe environments where they could take risks and learn from mistakes. But badly facilitated DL can impact detrimentally on cultural norms. Storey (2004, p.250) identifies occasions when DL can create competition and conflict between members of staff or anarchy when DL is a response to leadership neglect (Hargreaves and Fink, 2006, p.137). Sugrue (2015, p.xxiii) feels that DL exploits those with altruistic motivation. Individuals who might be more 'predisposed to care' could take on leadership and 'muddle through' in the absence of systemic support, with 'too much care leading to professional exploitation, 'the focus being on the teacher rather than the student'. Described as promoting social democracy and making social justice stronger Woods (2004, p.4) and Gross and Shapiro (2005, p.1), argue DL can provide opportunities for collaborative and reciprocal relationships that aid bonding (Thorpe *et al.*, 2008, p.38) and is good for

decision-making (Uhl-Bien 2006, Hargreaves, 2007). Without the opportunities that DL offers followers might not be aware of their potential abilities or be prepared to fight in a competitive environment (Chrispeels, 2004, p.6).

From reviewing the literature, studying the NfER Evaluations for PfS (Sharp *et al.*, 2003, 2007) and drawing on the researcher's own professional experience of managing PfS Centres from 2002-2006, it is considered that the Centres under case study aim for the ideals of DL. The reasons are outlined below:

- Teams are very small (PfS, 2011, Sharp *et al.*, 2007, p.2), meaning structures can be more flexible, creative and responsive to responsibilities (Sharp *et al.*, 2007, p.30, p.36, Researcher's professional experience).
- Staff work closely together in one space (PfS, 2011, Sharp *et al.*, 2007, p.1), encouraging constant communication and learning to lead through modelling, teamwork and personal experience (Sharp *et al.*, 2007, p.39, Researcher's professional experience).
- Staff develop leadership skills through formal and informal opportunities (PfS, 2011, Researcher's professional experience), growing from volunteer positions to teachers (Sharp *et al.*, p.37).
- Knowledge and resources are distributed as roles overlap (Sharp, *et al.*, p.35). The Centres create concerted action (Gronn, 2002) from their exchange with other Centres, attending workshops and conferences (Sharp *et al.*, 2003, p. 2, PfS, 2011) and from personal evaluation (QiSS, 2014, Sharp *et al.*, 2007, p.28).
- All stakeholders have a say in the Centre's development and direction, creating a shared ethos and vision (Sharp *et al.*, 2007, p.25, p.39, Researcher's professional experience) conducive to DL.

While this thesis begins with these assumptions relating to the ideals of DL it is aware that the investigation might produce findings to the contrary like those in the critical analysis of the ideals of DL have revealed above.

2.6 Research in the field of Distributed Leadership

This section discusses the theories developed by those practising and researching Distributed Leadership (DL). As previously explained, the lack of studies on leadership in ELAs made it necessary to consider DL research in schools and other educational institutions. Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss' book *Distributed Leadership; According to the Evidence* (2009) illustrates the overseas dominance in DL research. Eight authors were Canadians, four Americans, two English (MacBeath and Harris) and one from Argentina. The simultaneous publishing of the book in England and the USA demonstrates where demand is for such literature. In the main, English practitioners have had to model DL on practice abroad. Spillane, Halverson and Diamond's (2001) four-year project at the North-western University, Chicago, 'Distributed Leadership Study', for example, influenced materials produced by England's NCTL (Fitzsimons, James and Denyer, 2011, p.315).

However, basing DL practised on a model developed in a different culture with different Government policies, may be why English practitioners have found DL difficult to enact (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.287). The lack of a universally accepted definition of DL resulted in conceptual confusion and overlap that influenced how DL was practised, with dangers of staff 'talking past one another' (Spillane and Coldren, 2011, p.26). MacBeath (2004, p.61) describes how the head-teacher's personality, experience, confidence and reliance on others affected DL's theoretical and practical interpretation. He admits his study was small-scale. Nonetheless, he found six different schools operated with six different forms of DL. Therefore it could not serve as a blueprint other schools could copy or use as a yardstick. Spillane and Healey (2010, p.253) stress: 'We should be sceptical of its appeal as a measure of worth' because positive effects from DL may be contingent on many other conditions such as, history, culture, development, leadership legacy, recruitment, retention, local, regional and national policies.

Studies of DL activity followed one of two approaches: normative or descriptive. A normative view, as proposed by Manz and Sims (1993) and Wheatley (1994), looked at the strategic use of DL in multiple roles to improve schools, often accepting a purely top-down approach. A descriptive view accepted that while examples of DL may have regular comparable attributes, cases may be

different and not easily replicated in another situation (Spillane, 2006). Other researchers have debated the advantages and drawbacks of both approaches (Hartley and Allison, 2000, Harris and Chapman, 2002, Ford and Harding, 2007, Iles and Feng, 2011, Edwards *et al.*, 2013, King and Zhang, 2014), but this thesis has chosen to adopt a more descriptive approach as it does not wish to measure data against prescribed ideas. It shares the belief of Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2004), and Leithwood and Riehl (2007) that an interpretative role is more appropriate for a qualitative study of DL, discussed further below.

2.6.1 The Distributed Leadership Perspective

This thesis borrows concepts from the 'Distributed Leadership Perspective,' a North-Western University project, which followed the descriptive approach and involved 15 schools, allowing individuals to 'talk about leadership differently' (Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2001). It focuses on leadership practice, as opposed to its role within social systems and looks beyond the unidirectional effects of a single leader on subordinates to political context and use of tools (Yukl, 2006). It considers the influence of staff perceptions, collaborative decision-making, school governance, rules, culture and values and reveals how staff empowerment supports shared accountability and the school's vision and purpose (Spillane and Harris, 2008). It does not aim to improve leadership performance alone but offers an alternative and potentially illuminating way of tracking, analysing and describing complex patterns of interaction.

The Distributed Leadership Perspective acknowledges that as well as people there are also the tools and practices involved in leadership which create 'leader-plus aspects' and 'practice aspects' (Spillane, 2006; Spillane and Diamond, 2007). The 'leader-plus aspect' accepts that leadership involves multiple individuals in addition to the Head Teacher with duplications of responsibilities, joint activity and duality between specialization and interdependence. Borrowing this concept, this thesis draws on Gronn's (2002, p.430) concepts of 'concertive action' or 'conjoint agency', while acknowledging individuals may not always work towards the same goals and intentionally or unintentionally pursue contrary goals: what Spillane (2006) describes as 'co-performance'. The Distributed Leadership Perspective looks beyond the accounts of the formally designated leaders to consider all staff performing key

leadership and management functions in order to assess who was influencing or exercising leadership. It helps to identify and establish 'Communities of Practice' (Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2001), whereby leaders employ structures to encourage positive types of social interaction (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Louis and Marks, 1996; Lee and Smith 1996). It recognises the reciprocal interdependence between leaders and followers to complete complex tasks (Malone *et al.*, 1999; Follett, 2003) especially when they need input from each other.

Borrowing from the 'practice aspect' of the Distributed Leadership Perspective, this thesis accepts that elements involved in an action such as equipment like computers or pens and paper contribute to the leadership activity alongside knowledge, language and curriculum plans. The 'practice aspect' investigates purposeful activity in its 'natural habitat,' essential for the study of human cognition (Leont'ev 1981, Hutchins 1995) and is seen by Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001) and Spillane, Diamond and Jita (2003) as distributed practice stretched over School's social and situational contexts, creating knowledge and expertise at a collective level, thus making the organisation potentially more intelligent than individual members. This aspect supports research around an organisation's cultural context being an expression originating from the Latin term 'contextera,' meaning 'to weave together' (Stevenson, 2010, p. 425). This reminds us that context is more than a physical environment and actually woven together from a complex set of attitudes, perceptions, values and beliefs that guide what is deemed appropriate behaviour (Jones *et al.*, 2012). It is relevant because the 'inspiring environment' had been found to be a contributing factor to the success of PfS Centres (Sharp *et al.*, 2007).

If learning takes place outside individual brains (Weick and Roberts, 1996), mindfulness can be externally manifested through jointly performed activities and social relations (Gronn, 2000, p.318). Knowledge, therefore, becomes both the context and the skills and processes within it (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Hutchins and Klausen (1998, pp.15-24) compare it to the cockpit of a plane where pilots and instruments form a single cognitive system that act as one unity to fly the plane. In relation to the Centres, the Teacher works with the Mentors and the resources to lead a lesson for pupils. In this way learning does

not happen in isolation. Practice is developed by tools that illuminate how leaders think and develop leadership distribution cultures (Suchman, 1995, Halverson, 2007). In education these could be physical tools such as a computer, policy document, appraisal form, lesson plan or psychological tools that 'act upon mind and behaviour' (Vygotsky and Rieber, 1997, p.87) such as knowledge, language, procedures, and concepts (Halverson, 2003). According to Nardi's (1996) human-computer interaction and activity theory, these conceptual tools are externalised representations of ideas and intentions, what Cole (1998, p.291) calls a 'human being's social inheritance' and what Crook (2001, p.21) defines as the 'legacy of our evolving cultural history'. Thus assessment tools in school are employed by teachers and school leaders to increase their dialogue, support reflection, and develop positive relationships and accountability. What Vygotsky and Rieber (1987) refers to as 'mediations' between cultural tools and resources in leadership is a key theoretical idea which connect the concepts borrowed, from the Distributed Leadership Perspective with those of Cultural Historical Activity Theory, discussed further in 3.2.

2.6.2 Alignments of Leadership Distribution

Researchers employing the descriptive approach explored different types of distribution. Gronn (2002, pp.429-431) refers to structures of people working together, as 'stratification, laterality, aggregation, webbing, networking, clustering or randomness.' His descriptions of distributions of leadership, alongside those of MacBeath (2004), Spillane (2006), Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss (2009) among others have been collated by Bolden (2011, p.258). The collection has been developed and will be referred to as 'Alignments of Distribution' for the purposes of this thesis. From the literature it is clear that concepts overlap and fall into what the researcher believes to be four clear categories: *formal*, *pragmatic*, *organic* and *chaotic*, presented in Table 2.b, Appendix iv. These are discussed in more detail below.

The first group, named *Formal Distribution*, includes MacBeath's (2004) strategically or incrementally aligned leadership distribution. Spillane (2006) labels this as distribution by design. Gronn (2002) and Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss (2009) explain it as planful. Their concepts imply the pre-planned designation of responsibilities to formal and informal roles, not necessarily

negotiated or organised to grow potential leadership skills and might possibly be exploitative. Distribution may be given to those who have demonstrated capacity to lead, are seeking professional development or due to a need to build talent from within. It could take the form of a strict division of labour that is coordinated. Individuals assume leadership responsibilities independently, one after another as if they were taking part in a relay race (Spillane and Orlina, 2005, p.165).

The second group, named *Pragmatic Distribution*, is described by Spillane (2006) as 'by default' or what Gronn (2002) calls a 'shared role,' which emerges between two or more people'. MacBeath (2004) describes it as leadership 'distributed pragmatically.' Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss (2009) refer to it as spontaneously aligned. In effect leadership has been delegated of necessity, in an ad hoc fashion, or has arisen by default when formal or informal leaders individually or collectively have taken on responsibility or formed spontaneous collaborations. For example, two or more leaders are involved, operating as co-performed and collaborated distribution in a team for a training scenario or sport activity (Spillane and Orlina (2005, p.165).

The third group, named *Organic Distribution*, includes what MacBeath (2004) describes as leadership 'distributed opportunistically' and 'distributed culturally.' Spillane (2006) thinks of it as an open and organic environment, which allows for opportunity, and describes it as leadership 'by evolution.' Gronn (2002) labels it 'spontaneous collaboration of tasks,' Leithwood *et al.*, (2006) 'spontaneous misalignment.' Without formalization individuals take initiative spontaneously but not necessarily collaboratively with no clear demarcation between leaders and followers and even pupils taking opportunities to lead. The outcome is potentially positive if the individuals work like a community towards a common end involving 'enmeshed' organizational members (Gronn, 2000) or as a team where leaders are working separately but interdependently (Spillane and Orlina, 2005). However, without clarity of purpose there can be conflicting visions, beliefs, values and directions leading to conflict (Spillane and Healey, 2010).

The fourth group is named *Chaotic Distribution*. MacBeath (2005, p.355) does not allude to any form of leadership that could be described as chaotic but speaks more of 'opportunistic' or 'bottom-up' leadership from individuals with

divergent aims. Spillane (2006) describes it as distribution 'by crisis' when formal and informal leaders need to work together because of an unanticipated problem or challenge. It runs the risk of individuals preferring to work independently or in competition for resources (Spillane and Healey, 2010). Building on Gronn's (2002) idea of spontaneous misalignment Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss (2009) calls it anarchic alignment, which Spillane and Healey (2010, p.257) claims could have negative effects on organisational performance and outcomes. Empowered groups might be able to generate rapid and innovative solutions by self-direction, but they might also be unpredictable, unstable and on the 'edge of chaos' (Waldrop, 1992, p.12). Aronson (2002, p.303) argues inconsistencies can develop negative attitudes disrupting the strength and support for defined roles that encourage high performance (Barley and Bechky, 1994).

The Discussion Chapter uses these alignments in the later stages of the analysis of data in section 6.3.

2.7 Conclusion

This Chapter reviews the literature that guides this thesis and figure 2-3 below illustrates the pathways followed by the researcher. As there are few studies (Sharp *et al.*, 2007; Cummings *et al.*, 2011; Martin, Sharp and Mehta, 2013) relating to leadership in ELAs this thesis has referred to the concept of leadership in school-based education. It focuses on how the distribution of leadership is used to develop a strategic vision of how outcomes will be achieved and acknowledges this may involve looking at leadership and management in tandem because they are difficult to separate (Spillane and Diamond, 2007). While considering the myriad of 'leadership' theories and models including behavioural traits and personality, autocratic or democratic approaches, transactional or transformational styles, this thesis accepts the reality that leadership is very rarely the monopoly or responsibility of one person and may be formally organised to capitalise on a larger bank of expertise, may develop out of a social relationship or a social process or may emerge out of the collective or collaborative activity found in Post-heroic leadership styles.

'Distributed Leadership' (DL) is recognised as the dominant approach in England where cognition is 'stretched over' human actors, their tools and

aspects of the context to create a 'conjoint agency' (Gronn, 2002) creating flatter and more flexible structures with diverse expertise and reciprocal relationships. But there are criticisms that DL is counterintuitive to the idea of leadership because power relations can become blurred, with no-one in charge or direction coming from bottom up. As a result DL is reliant on the willingness of individuals to participate or perceptions of their ability to lead. While the researcher assumes DL is aimed for in the Centres, as established in 1.2, she acknowledges there is confusion about its definition. She has therefore preferred to consider DL as the set of ideals for all leadership that is distributed. The following Chapter will explain how the review of the literature has contributed to the theoretical framework for this thesis.

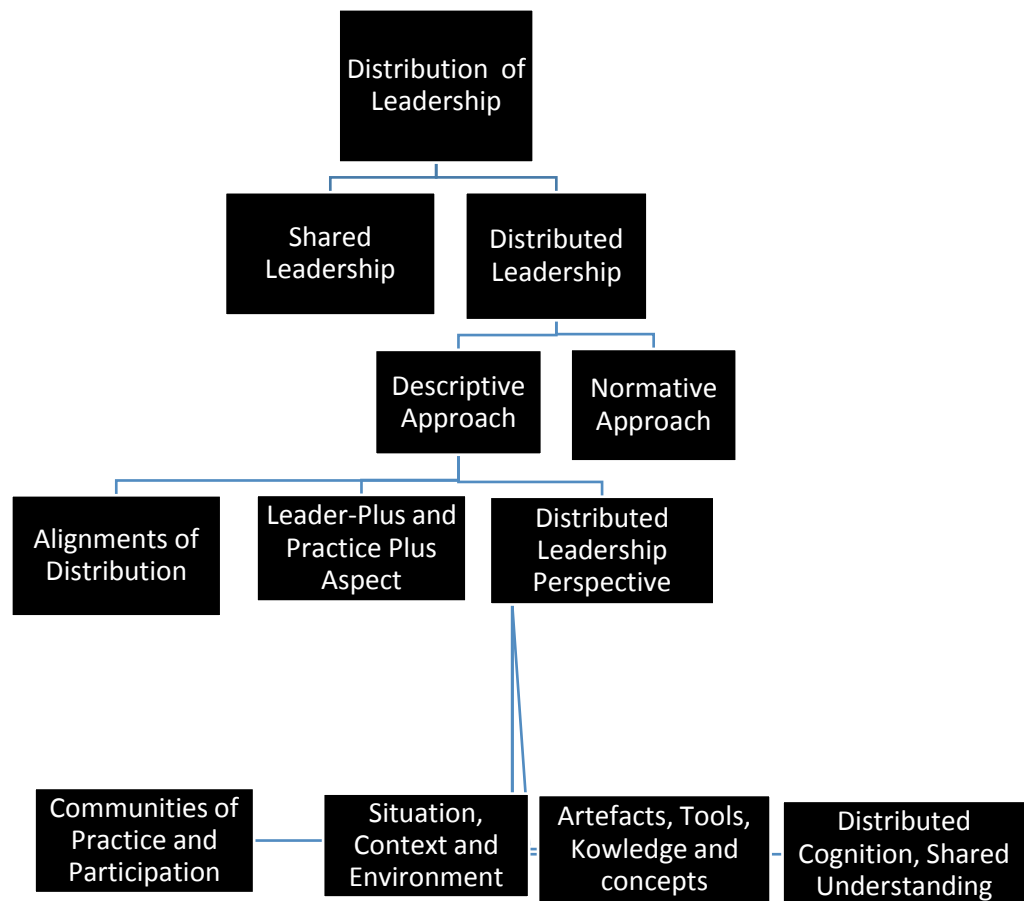


Figure 2-3 The journey through the literature relating to leadership distribution

3 Chapter Three - The development of a theoretical framework

3.1 Introduction

This enquiry set out to investigate what distribution of leadership takes place in the Centres. The journey through the distribution of leadership literature, in the previous Chapter, concluded that some aspects of the Distributed Leadership Perspective (Spillane, 2006), as a descriptive research approach, made it not an appropriate lens for this study. It captured emerging concepts of how leadership was being distributed but it was not empirically robust enough alone and this thesis agrees with Spillane and Healey's (2010, p.257) suggestion that a more structured framework was needed to give it meaning. Practical examples of how researchers should go about collecting and analysing data using the Perspective were difficult to find when the theoretical framework for this thesis was developed in 2012. Researchers using the Perspective had attempted to answer 'what', 'where', and 'who', but were less concerned about the 'how' and 'why' this thesis is demanding. While a review of potential supportive theories took place, the struggle to find an appropriate framework has, in part, been solved by the natural overlap in social organisational concepts the Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) provides. This thesis sees 'leadership' as activity, which is core to CHAT, which views subject, object, actions and operations through 'activity systems' (Leont'ev, 1974). From the natural partnership between Distributed Leadership (DL) concepts and CHAT this thesis has created a 'Theoretical Lens of Leadership Distribution' and this Chapter explains how it will be used to help support the researcher to answer the questions this thesis poses.

3.2 A Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution

As stated above, this thesis recognised that there was a need to find a theory that could provide a more robust structure for analysing the activity of distributing leadership under investigation. The theories reviewed in the literature discussed above in 2.3 informed the choices made in the development of a theoretical framework for this thesis. Although concepts found in the Continuum of leadership (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958, p.96) and the Situational Leadership Model (Hersey and Banchard, 1977) presented in

Chapter two were relevant in the consideration of the distribution of leadership these were not felt to be appropriate for this study. They are limited in their focus on the redistribution of leadership and it was felt that this thesis needed a theory that looked beyond just the leaders and followers. It also wished to consider the influence of other elements in leadership activity such as tools and environment. Therefore theories were considered that looked at leadership activity in situ. For example; Institutional Theory (Powell and DiMaggio, 1999) considers the norms, rules, and definitions of the environment that constrain and enable leadership, but it was rejected for not addressing how social actors make sense of or shape their environments and reflect on their interaction with it, Complexity Science (Ulh-Bien and Ospina, 2012) concentrates on how organisations increase their complexity to the level of the environment, but does not simplify and rationalize structures and Contingency theories (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007) consider the particular context and how the leadership type changes to meet contextual needs, but pay less attention to the relationship between the elements in the activity that this research required. It was actually the study of Distributed Leadership literature that helped the researcher to think about CHAT and like Cole and Wertsch (1996) and Karpov and Haywood (1998) this thesis believed it was a promising approach for rethinking leadership and its distribution. It combines many of the attributes of the theories considered above without their drawbacks.

CHAT therefore was chosen as an appropriate theory to develop a 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution' developed for this thesis. Made up of social aspects 'intrinsic' to human existence (Jones *et al.*, 2012), leadership is developed in a socio-cultural context and not in isolation (Crook, 2001, p. 28). CHAT essentially identifies intelligent action, in this case leadership, in its social environment by recognising the relationship between the human mind (what people think and feel) and activity (what people do), thus linking mind and culture (Daniels, 2010, p.679). Acting like a bridge between agency and structure, Gronn (2000, p.317) insists:

If our perspectives of leadership are to continue to serve useful analytical and practical purposes, then they must be grounded in a theory of action.

Gronn (2000) felt it was important to shift the focus away from the individuals involved in informal and formal leadership activity and concentrate more on their

interactions through activity systems (see Fig. 3-1). Using CHAT the theoretical lens developed for this thesis is able to provide a framework for the concepts found in the Distributed Leadership Perspective (Spillane, 2006). It accepts that DL does not work with a 'rule book' or offer a hypothesis to achieve consistent outcomes and acknowledges the flexible and reflexive relationships that DL requires. It recognises the influence of tools as integral components and not just a feature of intelligent activity, a limitation of the Distributed Leadership Perspective noted by Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001, p.23). By considering the cultural historical activity and the reciprocal influence between subjects and the role of the community (Kaptelinin and Nardi, 2012) the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution was able to consider the political dynamics that Maxcy and Nguyen (2006, p.164) feel Spillane's (2006) Distributed Leadership Perspective ignores by a focus more on artefacts.

CHAT was coined as a term by Cole (1996), but had been developed through the work of Leont'ev (1978) and Engeström, (1987). It had its principal intellectual roots in Soviet Russian Marxist psychology of the 1920s, and was echoed in the writings of L.S. Vygotsky (1978) and A.N. Leont'ev (1978, 1981). Later, Engeström (1993, p.64) declared CHAT to be 'the best kept secret of academia.' It became popular in various fields such as the Danish police (Christiansen, 1996), the USA postal service (Engeström and Escalante, 1996), the primary healthcare centres in Finland (Engeström, 2001), the digital technologies and artificial intelligence in Sweden and the USA (Kaptelinin and Nardi, 2012) and in education circles in Singapore (Tay and Lim, 2016) and in England (Daniels and Edwards, 2012). The recent renewed interest in CHAT in England is reflected in the establishment of research groups and centres including the Bath Centre for Socio-cultural, Activity Theory Research (CSAT), the Oxford Centre for Social Activity Theory (OSAT) and the Manchester Socio-cultural Theory Interest Group. This suggests researchers continue to recognise CHAT's potential to support analysis relating to the study of current organisational activity.

However, when data was collected for this study in 2012, there were numerous pragmatic explanations for CHAT in other fields but few discussions in leadership and management literature (Blackler, 1995, Kaptelinin, 1996, Daniels and Edwards, 2012). More recently in 2015, BERA (British Educational

Research Association) ran a special interest group at the University of Cambridge's Faculty of Education entitled: 'CHAT: Possible Futures – Advancing Research in Cultural Historical Activity Theory,' to 'raise its profile nationally and internationally'. More in-depth practical explanations can also be found in the recent book 'Activity Theory in Education: Research and Practice' (Gedera and Williams, 2016), including Lee Yong Tay and Cher Ping Lim's (2016) chapter discussing the investigation of DL in an Elementary School in Singapore. However, this book shows that there is still little consensus across research areas as to how it should be employed, especially in relation to leadership distribution. As Gedera (2016) points out, the abstract terminology is not naturally conducive to education and needs interpretation to have relevance to this study. For example, the term 'subject,' is used in education to mean an area of skill such as mathematics, but represents a human participant in CHAT, and a 'tool' is not just a term for a computer or pen but an 'artefact' that could be tangible or psychological such as knowledge or language. The full list of explanations for CHAT terminology in relation to Extended Learning Activities (ELAs) can be found in Appendix D.

This investigation followed Engeström's (1993) three principles for applying CHAT outlined below:

1. Focus on the collective notion of an activity system.
2. Analysis of contradictions, dissonances and conflicts.
3. Attention to the historical development of the activity within its context.

In the following sub-sections they are given further attention in relation to how they were applied within the theoretical framework for this thesis. All three are related to the 'stages' or 'generations' that emerged from Engeström's (1987) work 'Learning by Expanding' and are illustrated by triangular activity systems with elements at each joining point representing the socio-cultural strands.

3.2.1 Collective notion of an activity system

The first principle that Engeström believes should be adopted when applying CHAT focuses on how the elements interact to create collective activity. These interactions are called 'mediations'. The first generation model of this activity system is built on Vygotsky's (1978) concepts of the individual's perspective

and mediated action, consisting only of a triangle with *subject* (participants), *tools* (tangible artefacts and intangible such as knowledge and language) and *object* (objectives towards the goal). To encompass Leont'ev's (1981) exploration of the collective nature of humans and explain how activity works in socio-cultural settings, Engeström's (1987) second generation model extended the triangular system down. (See generation one and two in fig. 3-1) He added *community* (those who share the same objectives and context), *rules* (explicit or implicit norms, or conventions within a community or context) and the *division of labour* (negotiated distribution of tasks, powers and responsibilities among the participants of the activity system to achieve the outcomes).

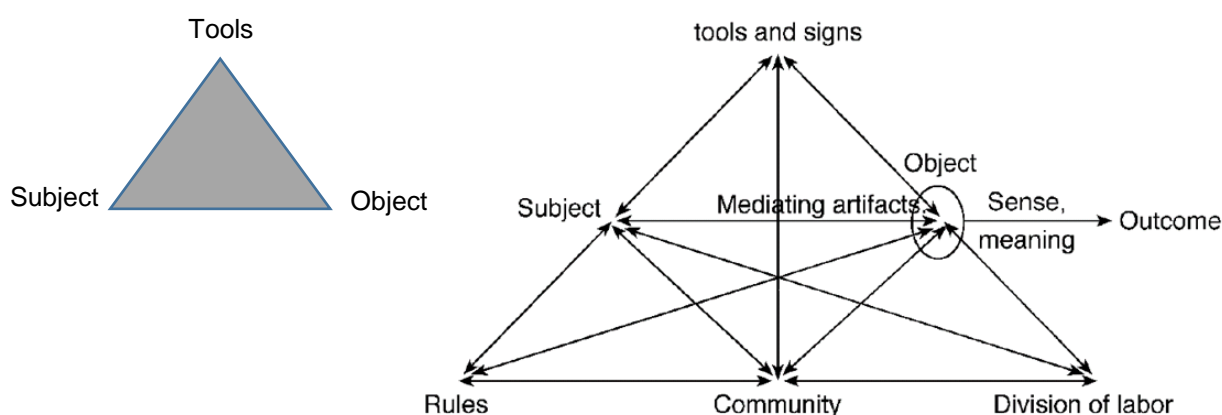


Figure 3-1 First and second generation model (Engeström's, 1987)

As can be seen above, this creates a more rounded view of all significant elements as a unified system of leadership action (Lave 1988) also simultaneously allowing the researcher to focus on any particular contributing element.

Reciprocal and influential communication between the elements in an activity system act as a 'unifying and connecting lifeline' (Engeström, 2001, p.134) towards an outcome which Leont'ev (1978, p.50) describes as being the need or desire to which the activity answers. The object motivates the subject into action, mediated by many different types of material tools such as machines or psychological tools such as culture and ways of thinking. For instance a white board or knowledge (tool) mediates with the teacher (subject) and the objective to teach the class (object), whilst also mediating between the code of school conduct or social norms (rules), staff roles in the classroom (division of labour) and peers, wider school society or political environment (community).

Using activity systems, it was possible to see 'learning as transmission' (Kaptelinin, 1996, p.107) through mediations (interactions) and the 'internalisation' of knowledge and experience or 'tacit' knowledge that exists like a mental picture of external activity (Vygotsky, 1978). The activity systems reveal where mediations between elements develop pedagogy and how social activity distributes cognition (Cole and Engeström, 1993, p.8) among members to support staff to learn to lead particularly demonstrated through the mediations between tools and the other elements, carrying with them culture and history (Kuutti, 1991), explored below in 3.2.3. A person may need to have prior knowledge and experience to use a tool, but at the same time by simply having a handle, such as a mug, an artefact can inform a person how it should be held.

CHAT offers adaptive and reflexive activity systems which can respond to data emerging from the research process (Bottoms, 2008, p.99). It provides a structure against which the leadership distribution can be viewed to consider how it is aligned. For example in the Centres a curriculum plan or the layout of classroom (tools) can be looked at in relation to its influence and mediations with the participants (subject), dictating to them as to its use. This analysis offered more explanation as to how and why leadership distribution was taking place and where it wasn't supporting the leadership in the Centres to achieve their goals. Nonetheless, many mediations between the elements remain invisible such as social and historical activity (Jermier and Kerr, 1997) that might develop social norms, influencing the behaviour of staff members.

Engeström's third generation builds on the second by considering multiple interacting activity systems that cross boundaries and expand to share objects or goals (see figure 3-2).

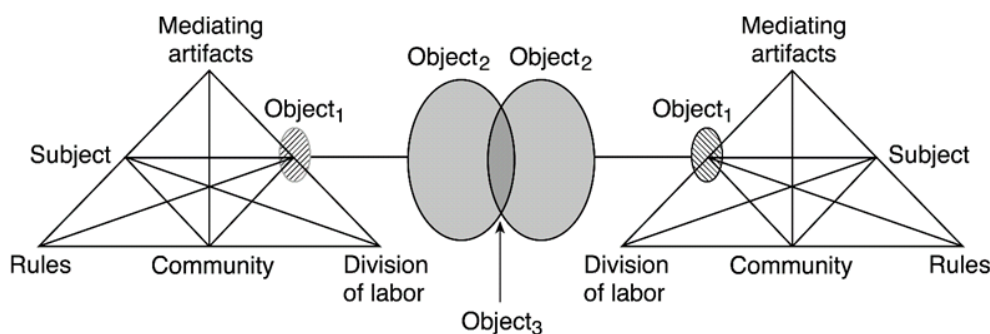


Figure 3-2 Engeström's (2001) third generation model

CHAT recognises that activities are not isolated units and can connect across hierarchies and networks, influencing other activities and environments (Kuutti, 1996, p.34). One isolated activity may have its own objective that contributes to a larger outcome. For example a classroom assistant, referred to as a Mentor in the Centres studied, may have an objective of leading the warm-up considered as one activity while the Teacher in the Centre may have an objective of checking the register is complete and that resources are set up is considered as another, both contributing to the wider outcome of teaching as an enjoyable activity to raise pupil attainment. However, there may also be multiple or conflicting objectives within a collection of activities influenced by or interrupting the mediations within the activity systems (Kuutti, 1990). The same Mentor who has been offered the opportunity to lead an activity, for example, might feel alienated and uncomfortable due to personal differences and might choose to decline, which limits the Teacher's possibilities of growing the team's skills and experience to become a useful resource in the future. CHAT terms this disruption or barrier in the mediations (interactions) within and between activity systems as a 'contradiction', further discussed in section 3.2.2 below.

Based on Engeström's models, this thesis created an activity system that worked with concepts from the DL literature (see figure 3-3). It illustrates how the ideal features of DL, proposed by the literature, have been mapped into the elements found in a CHAT activity system, acting as a guide for the collection of data in this study.

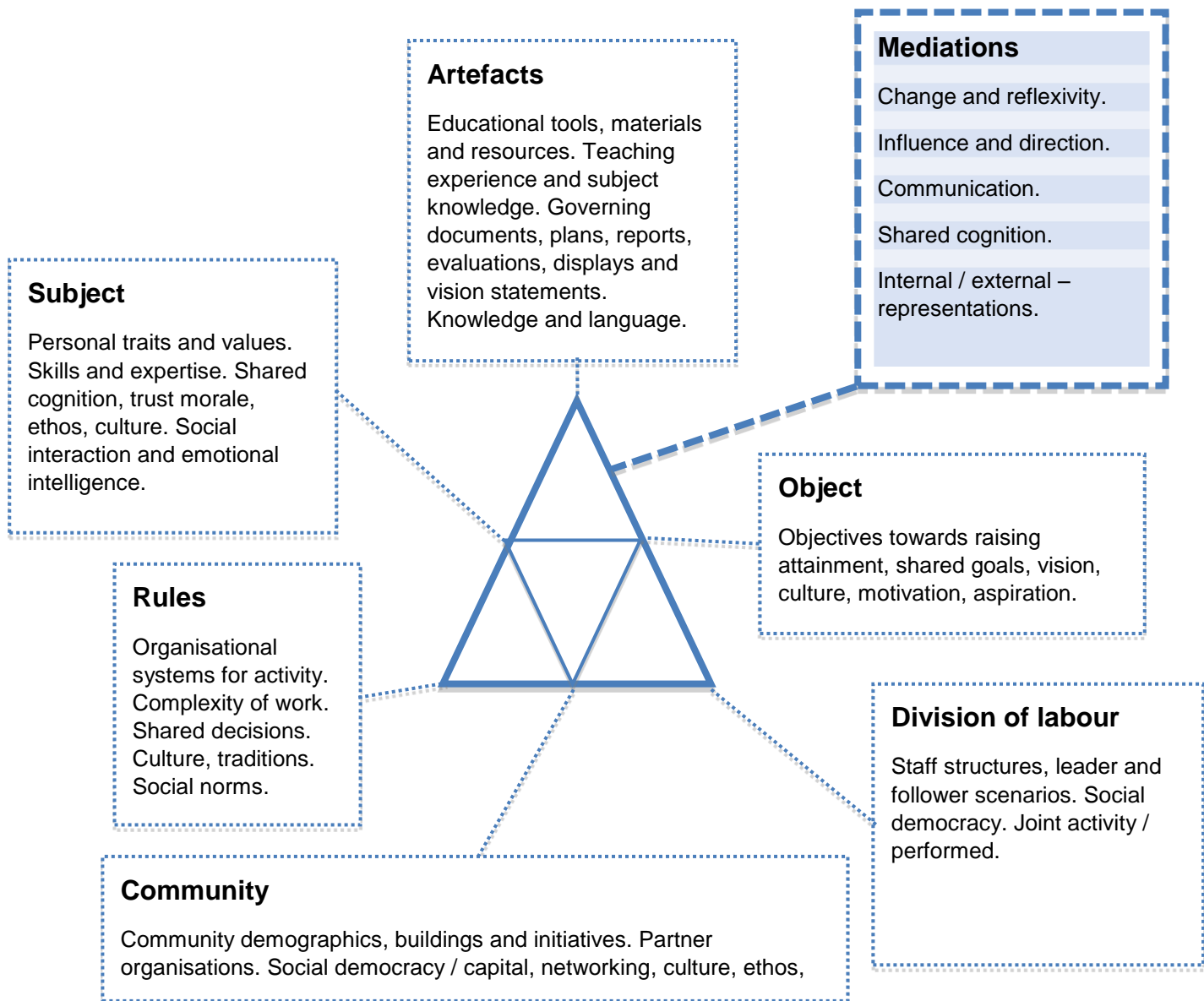


Figure 3-3 Features of distributed leadership found in a CHAT activity system

Although the DL concepts have been mapped on to this CHAT framework, it is accepted that inevitably many areas between the elements overlap, due to the reflexive nature of leadership distribution (Murphy, 2009).

3.2.2 Analysis of contradictions, dissonances and conflicts

The second principle that Engeström believes should be adopted when applying CHAT considers analysis of the mediations (interactions) between the

elements that are not smooth or reflexive. Termed 'contradictions' they are an intrinsic part of human activity (Ilyenkov, 1977) and their inevitability is an essential feature of the mediations between elements in the activity systems. They can be thought of as accumulating systemic tensions and are also referred to as breakdowns, interruptions, imbalances, ruptures, gaps, instabilities or conflicts (Engeström, 2016; Nardi, 1996; Kuutti, 1996; Fullan, 2010). Contradictions can occur for example when a new technology (tool) is introduced into the Centre (community), which does not have any social norms (rules) attached to it or when new practices such as opportunities to lead, collide with old systems found in job descriptions (division of labour) and go against cultural norms (rules). Elements and mediations are always in a state of flux and situations change dynamically. Contradictions can sometimes be a 'motive force of change and development' (Engeström, Miettinen and Punamaki, 1999, p.9), which form new cultures changing the way individuals perceive, think and feel (Schein, 1992, p.12). Eventually activity systems are reconceptualised to embrace wider possibilities than before.

Within his 'expansive transformations', Engeström (2001, p.137) recognises levels of contradictions. He believes *Primary contradictions* occur within the individual elements themselves. These might arise within tools if there is a lack of information available regarding how equipment should be used or a language barrier. *Secondary contradictions* occur between the elements. These might arise if the rules from the community do not work well with the division of labour such as individuals working in small staff teams who need to take on more than one responsibility to help spread the work-load (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.293). *Tertiary contradictions* happen between interacting activity systems. These might arise in leadership distribution when support staff with specialist skills are unrecognised (Gronn 2002, Oduro, 2004) or do not feel valued (Hammersley-Fletcher and Strain, 2008, p.6). *Tertiary contradictions* might also arise if staff members feel pressure to take on additional leadership if fearful of alienation or being fired and as a result become more burdened (Ritchie and Woods, 2007). *Quaternary contradictions* occur between the central and outside activity systems. These might arise where participants in the leadership activity may begin to question and deviate from established rules and norms, evolving into a 'divergent' activity system (Gedera, 2016, p.66). These might also arise if

staff in a Centre wish to achieve different aims to the Government agenda they are expected to follow or are not able to practically achieve goals set due to unrealistic budgets provided. However, it is possible that these contradictions can be resolved into newer ways of working beneficial to all.

It is hard to accurately isolate the differences between these contradictions but it is useful to consider where they might stem from. As CHAT has roots in social sciences it is possible to link them to literature in this area to analyse why they occur and understand how they might be worked through and resolved. More general ones include those *contradictions* that might arise if individual characteristics were judged instead of skill especially working under observation (Aronson, 2002, p.307). Perceptions of employees' and employers' skills base on personality, gender or ethnicity might lead to divergent role expectations, exploitation (Robbins, Judge and Millet, 2014) or process loss if expertise is over-or under-used (Watson, *et al.*, 1998). DL is based on shared decision-making (Uhl-Bien 2006, Hargreaves, 2007), but Managers and Teachers can influence opinions through persuasion, holding back information or encouraging members to voice contrary views (Aronson, 2002, p.255, p.261) that might cause contradictions in the mediations. If staff are promoted to new roles in the Centres this could challenge relationships between colleagues. Followers might feel powerless and alienated if there is a lack of communication or transparency from other staff (Fink, 2010), especially if unsaid tacit personal understandings have grown between members in the Centres that exclude others (Robbins, Judge and Millet, 2014). *Contradictions* might be brought about by issues about rewards or resources, scapegoating, ruthless political in-fighting and exploitation (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007, p.853). While cohesiveness could be motivating *contradictions* could occur when social loafing, such as relying on others to get the job done, is diluting individual responsibility (Robbins, Judge and Millet, 2014, p.226). Or when there are differences in *objects* (goals) between activity systems, such as a member of staff, having no desire to participate in the distribution of leadership and learn skills beyond their Job specification. All of these situations discussed above that might lead to contradictions could be prevented or resolved if analysed through CHAT and understood.

CHAT offers a broad approach (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010, p.71) for this study to investigate how leadership was distributed through all activity, including management tasks, and how staff contributed to the vision and direction of the Centres. The activity systems provide an analytical structure that supports the researcher to be able to consider how the different elements in the activity mediated together to create the distribution of leadership. It illuminates the influences and interactions between the elements of subjects (staff), tools, rules, community and division of labour, found in the action of leadership distribution, to achieve the object (Centre's goals). It becomes a visual representation of what distribution was happening in the Centres and allows the researcher to zoom in on specific elements while keeping a wider holistic picture. For example, the issues created by introducing the Olympic and Paralympic curriculums or placing Volunteers in sessions can be analysed against the broader objectives of raising aspirations as set out by the Playing for Success (PfS) initiative. Leadership distribution can be examined within the larger community context to understand the activity within the specific and unique setting of a large sports club.

3.2.3 Attention to the historical development of the activity within its context

The third principle Engeström believes should be adopted when applying CHAT considers the important role history and culture play in activity and how the mediations expose the accumulation of structural tensions within and between activity systems over time (Engeström, 1993). Through the theoretical Lens created for this study the mediations (interactions) between the elements in the activity systems illuminate the historical development of leadership distribution of Extended Learning programmes relating to the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Believing that the future will be similar to their immediate past some human-beings might use their knowledge and experience to shape values and organise the present. For example the Centre Managers' memories of the past might be projected onto the Volunteers in relation to appropriate behaviour in challenging circumstances to interpret and guide the activity in terms of their own culturally mediated experiences (Cole, 1996, p.185), the cultures in the Centres existing as a 'pattern of shared basic assumptions' the staff team had taught to others (Schein, 1992, p.12). The theoretical lens thus is able to investigate whether the culture of leadership distribution is influenced or

directed by a larger organisation or the philosophy and vision was a 'gift' of the Managers themselves (Torrance, 2013, p.354; Hawkes, 2013, p.142).

Actions are not isolated units and every activity has its own 'social inheritance' (Cole, 1998, p.291) bringing meaning to the current situation. This investigation responds to Hartley's (2007, p.205) request for more attention to the micro-political dimensions that surround leadership distribution. Through CHAT this study unpeels several historical layers of meaning attached to any element in the system and considers the activity within micro- and macro-cultural levels (Schein, 2010, p.2) discussed in more detail in the following Chapter. This is illustrated using Cole's (1996, pp. 286) 'garden-as-culture' metaphor, where the micro-world of an individual plant or participant, is growing in a macro-world of a garden or culture. A subject in CHAT, (a member of staff in this study), is part of the 'micro' activity system for a particular staff role that is interacting with other elements (such as rules, tools and the community). It is influenced by the culture of the 'meso' activity system of the Centre, with its own relationships, goals, and outcomes, which sits in a larger 'macro' activity system that represents the wider organisations and initiatives the Centres work with in the national educational climate. (See Appendices T, U, V). These cultural layers Pohio (2016, p.157) argues are missed by many employing CHAT (Ramsey, 2008; Schoen and Teddie, 2008; Fullan, 2010). The specific actions for a role are represented by a single (micro) activity system while the interactive behaviour between roles and the larger organisation are represented by two or more interacting (meso) activity systems. However, it is understood that while this study's theoretical lens answers Gronn's (2000, p.337) request for more contextual analysis in the field of leadership, the activity system can never be a complete representation of all of the social and cultural influences affecting the activity of leadership distribution. As a slice in time, recorded through the research process, there could be many aspects that have not been captured in any one activity system.

This interpretative theoretical lens, therefore, supports the consideration of the 'cultural' and 'historical' aspects of the distribution of leadership to analyse the past, present and possible future. Insights can be gained into the historic significance of prior leadership distribution and the disturbances and conflicts staff might have experienced that had become contradictions or potential

barriers. CHAT intertwines human thought and action (Leont'ev, 1981, Wertsch, 1991). CHAT can support the researcher to consider the social and organisational norms, in relation to individuals with different roles, motives and psychological tools (Murphy, 2009, p.189, Tay and Lim, 2016, p.91). CHAT highlights the reciprocity in mediations between elements to create distribution and was a useful lens for considering the leadership distribution in the Centres within a wider organisational structure and the wider community (Foot, 2014). For example the QiSS (quality in study support) kite mark develops a way of thinking that encourages all to take on leadership (QiSS, 2014) and the change in Government funding and host organisation partner may have had an influence on the leadership distribution in the Centres. CHAT also supports the consideration of how changes in policy and popular educational practices have impacted on individuals and practice in the Centres.

3.2.4 Application of Alignments of Distribution

The framework developed for this thesis is created by borrowing theoretical ideas from Distributed Leadership (DL) and CHAT. To analyse the findings generated through the activity systems of CHAT the data is viewed against the four alignments of; *formal*, *pragmatic*, *organic* and *chaotic* from the DL literature (Gronn, 2002; MacBeath, 2004; Spillane, 2006; Hargreaves and Fink, 2006; Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009), as established in 2.6.2. The first group, named *Formal Distribution*, includes distribution that is strategically or incrementally aligned. The second group, named *Pragmatic Distribution*, emerges by default or when a shared role emerges between two or more people. The third group, named *Organic Distribution*, includes leadership distributed opportunistically or culturally. The fourth group, named *Chaotic Distribution*, is formed 'by crisis' when formal and informal leaders need to work together because of an unanticipated problem or challenge. From the review of the literature it is apparent that when DL is *formally*, *pragmatically* and *organically* aligned it is rich in mediations which can be described as smooth and reciprocal between the elements. For example the *rules* (policies) are supportive to the *subjects* (staff) in their efforts to achieve the *object* (aims of the Centre) their activity, knowledge and language found in the *tools* element support the sharing of information from the *community* (Local Authority or Club). But it was noted they could easily slide into becoming *chaotically* aligned

distribution should contradictions occur in the mediations and they are not resolved as discussed in 3.2.2, (see figure 3-4).

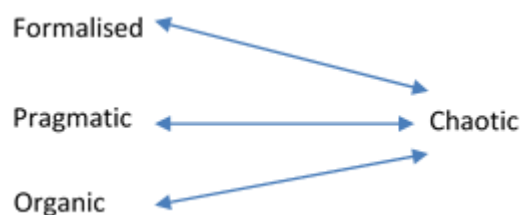


Figure 3-4 Relationships between the Alignments of Distribution

In those circumstances a new *tool* that the *subject* needs training on might not work to support the Centre achieve its *object*. The distribution of leadership activity such as a Volunteer leading a game on the interactive white board with *pragmatic* alignments, because they had the skill to use it, was becoming *chaotic* if the password had not been shared. The activity systems use Engeström's (2001, p.137) Levels of Contradictions, discussed in section 3.2.2 above, to consider at what point contradictions arise, in the different micro-, meso- or macro-levels of activity systems, within the elements themselves, the interaction between systems in the Centres, or within the organisation and its context.

3.3 Conclusion

Responding to the argument that there is a need for more descriptive work to improve understanding (Spillane and Healey, 2010, p.257), this enquiry aims to investigate the distribution of leadership in the Centres. However, while this study borrows concepts from the Distributed Leadership Perspective, it recognises a more structured framework is needed to give the contextual layers of human activity in the leadership distribution meaning. Questions such as 'why' and 'how' provide more informative answers about what the distribution of leadership involves than just the previous questions in DL research (Spillane, 2006; MacBeath *et al.*, 2007) of 'what', 'who' and 'where.' Borrowing activity systems from CHAT this thesis develops a 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution' that brings the elements of leadership activity in the Centres together to from a more rounded viewpoint. It recognises the contribution of tools, context and interactions with others, not just the action of an individual. The CHAT activity systems enable the researcher to see where the mediations

(interactions) are and the contradictions within them. These mediations reveal the historical and cultural aspects as to how the distributed leadership had developed in the Centres. Mediations are analysed to consider whether formally, pragmatically or organically aligned distribution become chaotically aligned when contradictions arise in the mediations between elements in the activity systems. The following Chapter discusses how the methodology works within this theoretical framework to answer the research questions posed and examines the researcher's position.

4 Chapter Four - Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter explains the methodology for this study. It presents the research design within an interpretative and qualitative case study approach and describes the use of comparison to question the data. An overview is given as to how the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution, introduced in the previous Chapter, is employed. It was developed by combining two strands in the literature from Distributed Leadership (DL) and Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). This Chapter discusses how this lens provided a structure for the chosen methods of documentary analysis, interviews and observations, and for the organisation of the data within the computer software NVivo8. A description is provided as to how the 'Alignments of Distribution', within this thesis's theoretical lens, are applied in the analysis and the comparative case study approach employed. This study is an investigation from an insider position and this Chapter explains how this impacted on the investigation, which followed the British Educational Research Association Ethical Guidelines (BERA, 2011). Within discussion of each of the methods below, attention is paid to the particular ethical concerns relating to them.

4.2 The research design

By working at the qualitative end of the qualitative/quantitative continuum this investigation was better able to appreciate the 'significance of leaders as makers of meaning' (Bryman, 2004, p.762) and to see leadership as a 'multi-dimensional process of social interaction' (Kay, 1996, p.135) rather than as a 'unidirectional influence of the leader over the follower'. This thesis accepted it was creating a subjective experience, not objective knowledge of reality. It chose to interact with people, talk and listen to them through interviews as a legitimate way to collect data. It aimed to draw on the knowledge, views, understandings, experiences, interactions and interpretations of the staff in the Centres through documentary analysis, and collect 'meaningful properties of social reality' (Mason, 2002, p.63) through observation. Transforming data into evidence, this investigation used words and diagrams of activity systems (see Appendices U, V, W) to convey an understanding of the phenomenon from multiple forms of data. The theoretical framework for this investigation was

developed by borrowing concepts from the Distributed Leadership (DL) Perspective (Spillane, 2006; Spillane and Diamond, 2007) and the structure of Culture Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). This supports a systematic research approach and counteracts the criticism that an interpretive paradigm and qualitative approaches lack rigour (Bailey, 1984; Hammersley, 1987; Aspinwall *et al.*, 1994,). As a qualitative study there was no attempt to make generalisations from the data. As it only involved two Centres, it would have been seen as less representative than in a quantitative study (Denscombe, 2003, pp. 280-281). Instead it aimed to contribute knowledge to the field by applying the 'force of example' (Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 227). Due to organisational similarities in both Centres, however it is possible 'theoretical replications' such as patterns between the contradictions found in the activity systems (Yin, 2003, p.47) may have resulted.

Case study was chosen to be more appropriate than experimental or survey approaches to capture the changing situation of leader-follower relationships (Klenke, 2008). It offered the possibility of dealing with a variety of sources of evidence within a real-life context (Yin, 2003, p.8). From the literature it is clear there is no definitive answer to what a case study is. This research adopted Stake's (1995, p.444) 'strategy of inquiry in which a researcher explores in depth a programme, event, activity, process', to bring out the details from the viewpoint of the participants as opposed to Gerring's (2004, p.341) 'intensive study to elucidate a larger class of similar phenomenon.' Following the general rule that case studies focus on processes rather than outcomes (Gerrring, 2007, Silverman, 2005), the research used the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution, developed for this investigation, to explore a case study's ability to observe how the context can determine the cause and effects of activity. It examined the interacting features of each Centre in relation to culture and history through CHAT activity systems to describe the phenomenon in depth rather than just the follower or leader in isolation. Case study provides this investigation with the opportunity to verify or disprove preconceived notions rather than to weaken the data by the researcher's own interpretations being too subjective (Mertens, 2015, p.358).

Non-probability purposive sampling was chosen to find the participants. The Centres were two of the first ten London based Playing for Success (PfS)

Centres established nationally and were still operational in 2012 despite cuts in funding from the Government. They offered the potential for a good comparison as each Centre had become embedded with a different partner from the original three partners, who may have had a different approach to leadership distribution. Centre A was overseen by the Local Authority (LA) and Centre B by the football foundation of the football club. It is important to emphasise that the researcher oversaw Centre A so it was also chosen for reasons of professional interest. Having been part of PfS and worked previously with Centre A, the researcher had some understanding of the leadership practice and cross-fertilisation of ideas with Centre B. So this study had the privileged 'inside' position Mercer (2007) argues is sought after by many researchers. However, being an insider also raised challenges discussed in more depth in 4.7 below. The interviewees were chosen for being good representatives of the roles they held. This included the Manager and Teacher in each Centre and a Mentor and a Volunteer put forward by the Manager, based on the length of time they had spent at the Centres and because they were 'experienced and knowledgeable in the area' they were being interviewed about (Rubin and Rubin, 2012, p.187). Their time in the Centres is outlined in Table 4.2 below. In Centre A the Mentor also took on the responsibility of acting as a Volunteer Co-ordinator.

Centre A	Time in role	Centre B	Time in role
Manager	6yrs	Manager	13yrs
Teacher	13yrs	Teacher	2yrs
Mentor	8yrs	Mentor	3yrs
Volunteer	3yrs	Volunteer	2yrs

Table 4-1 Length of time staff had worked in the centres

As illustrated in Table 4-2, every person had worked in their Centre for at least two years. The average was 7.5 years in Centre A and 5 years in Centre B. Although not directly included in this study, the Line-managers of each Centre had been working with them for around 13 years. It is significant that apart from the Managers, most staff had only been working there for up to 3 years in post. However, while qualitative data could capture the rich details of leadership distribution, there was awareness that interpretations were intertwined with the

'self' of the researcher (Denscombe 2003, pp. 280-281), especially in Centre A where she was an 'insider' (Labaree, 2002; Mercer, 2007).

4.3 Using comparison in the analysis of the data

In observing the world, 'thinking without comparison is unthinkable' (Swanson, 1971, p.145). In describing what the leadership distribution of extended learning activities looked like in PfS centres, to answer the first research question, it was inevitable that comparisons were made between the two cases studied and it helped to generate further understanding. In qualitative research comparison is the dominant principle (Boeije, 2002). While this study rejects Durkheim's (1895) comparative positivist outlook that believed the sociologist should free his mind of all preconceptions and deal with phenomena in terms of their common external characteristics, it accepts Weber's (1947) comparative view that scientific knowledge of society and culture emanates from a number of different aspects of life and history that are significant to the investigator and part of reality.

Comparison became the best possible substitute for the rigorous controls provided by scientific experimental methods (Rihoux and Ragin 2009, p.xviii) and a comparative research design was chosen in relation to the cases selected. This thesis took concepts from Mill's (1843, p. 465) 'Method of Agreement,' which deals with similarities and differences in similar cases, and 'Method of Difference' which deals with similarities and differences in different cases in order to find their causes, a practice further discussed in 6.2. The two Centres under study were both part of the PfS network and were set up with the same staff roles and operational structures. By applying the Method of Agreement it was possible to consider what similarities and differences existed in their leadership distribution. But, they had been influenced by and were now operating under a different partner from each other so applying the Method of Difference it was possible to see what may have caused the particular distribution of leadership to take place in order to answer the second research question of 'how and why' it occurred.

The themes that emerged from the data were refined to include subsections that reflected regularities, patterns and explanations. In comparing and

contrasting the data through these themes it was possible to gain a wider understanding of what were important factors in the distribution of leadership in the Centres. This thesis borrowed Goodrick's (2014, p.2) comparative case study approach because it is appropriate to use when 'how and why questions are being posed' and his cross-case analysis of data to see:

- What are the key patterns that occur between the elements in each of the cases?
- What might be responsible for these patterns?
- How can these similar or different patterns be explained?
- What is surprising about these patterns? (Goodrick, 2014, p.6)

The three levels of *micro*, *meso* and *macro*, referred to in the literature (DiMaggio, 1999; Jaworski and Potari, 2009; Schein, 2010) relating to social organisations, provided three stages of analysis that had taken place in the theoretical framework. Using the illustrative CHAT activity systems, it was easy to compare them to another case and consider the similarities and differences in the mediations between the elements. The micro-, meso- and macro-levels of the activity systems were followed as planned in the theoretical framework created for this thesis, discussed in Chapter three. The micro-level illustrated the leadership activity of an individual in their role (*subject*), such as a teacher, mediating with the other elements. The meso-level illustrated how distribution was taking place through interacting subjects, such as the Teacher and Manager or Mentor and Volunteer. The macro-level offered the overall picture of the culture that had developed around leadership distribution and highlighted organisational differences between the Centres studied.

This study was critical of the use of comparison. It tried to avoid 'false uniqueness' or 'false universalism' by resisting over-generalisations from one or more causal circumstances in common (Rose and Mackenzie, 1991). The investigation avoided wide variations in comparative moments and from a variation in source elements by selecting samples carefully. It combated the unreliability of time lag between cases, which can make analysis problematic owing to the influence of other historical, social and/or programmatic factors (Goodrick, 2014), by studying the Centres concurrently leading up to and during

the Olympics. In comparing the two cases, methods used and data gathered could be reviewed and verified, as discussed in 4.4 below. This showed, for example, if there were gaps in the research process or where the positionality of the researcher was interfering with the data and producing biased results, making the findings say more about leadership distribution than the data itself (Basit, 2010, p.183).

4.4 The collection of data

This thesis employed the main qualitative methods of interviews, observation and documentary analysis. It was important to consider how usable data would be produced, accepting that some might be lost in the process and other unwanted concerns might be introduced. To 'catch the dynamics of unfolding situations' (Fox, Goodey and Goulding, 1995, p.79) this case study went through several stages commencing with documentary analysis with a wide field of focus without selectivity or prejudgement on leadership distribution as a whole. It began by collecting data, using documentary analysis, to locate underlying themes in documents such as national guidance from the Government, job descriptions, policies, meeting agendas and reports. Activities were identified as being more related to leadership and achieving the ideals of DL recognised in 2.5. The focus then narrowed down to gather data in field notes from six observations, to gain a 'first-hand encounter and tacit understanding' (Merriam, 2002, p.12) by watching leadership activity in action. Interviews with eight staff, a Manager, Teacher, Mentor and Volunteer from each Centre captured the perceptions, experiences, feelings, intentions, behaviours and attitudes of the participants in a series of semi-structured interviews. Other documents were then added to the initial ones if a participant or activity made reference to them, such as a tool, teaching resource or minutes of a meeting. The last stage of the investigation involved transcripts and interpretations being checked with participants.

Attention was paid to 'the stability, trustworthiness, and scope' of the findings (Elliott, 2005, p.22-25) to maintain the data's plausibility. Triangulation took place through the different methods of sourcing data and through the range of participants involved and activities observed. It was accepted that there could have been alternative explanations as to why the distribution of leadership had

been written about, talked about or observed through unknown effects on the researcher or the participants. Therefore data was verified by the recurrence of phenomena in both Centres and the researcher was able to compare interpretations with those involved, corroborating and augmenting evidence (McCulloch, 2004, p.129; Yin, 2009, p.103). Data was not over-simplified in the analysis process by using categories that might decontextualize meaning or overlook human influence over the data. This also met the essential criteria of 'credibility' or 'confirmability' for qualitative research. The emerging issues and the research design were discussed with the thesis supervisors and Centre managers to make 'member checks' (Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.314), shifting the validity procedure from researchers to participants in the study (Creswell and Miller, 2000). However, 'member checking' did not guarantee the validity of information since what participants said could have been misleading. In order to enhance opportunities for trustworthy data the researcher drew from her experience of using interviewing and observational practices in previous work: a prior study involving interviewing students who had been part of the Singapore Olympic and Paralympic bid team and a pilot activity observing a Dance Week leading up the Games in 2012. This is referred to in relation to the methods used discussed in the following subsections.

4.4.1 Documentary Analysis

Documentary analysis provided both accounts of what was taking place in the Centres in relation to leadership and illuminated the perceptions of those participating in leadership. The list was influenced by previous Distributed Leadership (DL) studies, suggestions from Centre Managers and the researcher's insider knowledge. As the observations and interviews made reference to documents relating to tools, guides and meetings, further relevant documents were collected. This collection aimed to be non-intrusive, not wanting to exploit the researcher's position of power to pressurise participants to disclose what they considered as personal. Participants were assured that data would be anonymized and only used for research purposes. The final selection reflected Halverson's (2007, p.102) 'three stages of artefacts found in a professional community' and was collected across a period of six months during the period leading up to, during and after the Olympic and Paralympic Games. Stage one included material received as national guidance from the Government in relation to Extended Schools and the PfS Initiative. Stage two

included material received as Local Authority guidance and Football Club Foundation guidance such as job descriptions and policies. Stage three included material designed locally such as rotas, meeting agendas, reports and curriculum plans. It also included material that was inherited such as the volunteer programme, kite mark summaries and promotional material. It was noted where a document had been created by the researcher previously in their professional role in Centre A (see Appendix I). This 'nested positionality' (Kanuha, 2000, p.441) is discussed further in 4.7 below.

As fixed and static texts, the documents were unlike human participants in being non-reactive and re-analysed without changing (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.276). They were also quickly available at no cost and incorporated a wide range of evidence. Documentary analysis was less invasive but more solitary than the other methods chosen but could verify, contextualise or clarify personal recollections. By collecting data that was culturally and contextually relevant, this thesis answered Spillane, Diamond and Jita's (2003, p.535) request for more focus and attention on tools and material artefacts. Documents were viewed as social products and social constructs of reality and versions of events that could be thought of as 'sedimentations of social practices' (May, 2001, p.176). From these documents it was possible to see the aspirations and intentions of people, events, places and relations of times before this piece of research took place. An 'excavation' of the leadership distribution, as Mason (2002, p.11) suggests, by questioning and interpreting the data to construct an understanding of the social or cultural relations.

This study accepted however, that documentary analysis needed the same critical stance as interviewing and observations and documents were not seen as the unmitigated truth and literal recordings of events, but recognised that they could be interpretations (Bailey, 1994, p.296; Mason, 2002, p.106). As an insider the researcher had a better understanding of the purpose of a document and did not waste time being misled with false leads. She was in a better positioned to realise if what had been omitted was significant and recognise if the information had been prompted by social, political, economic or historical reasons and written from the authors' ideological positions. The researcher was careful as an insider to avoid assumptions and bias due to prior knowledge. The

wide range of documents helped to verify understandings, acting like another layer of triangulation within the fuller picture.

4.4.2 Observations

It was important to observe the actions talked about in the documents and interviews to verify what the distribution of leadership looked like in the Centres. In consultation with the Centre Managers, six educational activities for children, were chosen as 'good examples' (Creswell, 2005) of usual practice as they happened in their natural setting (Yin, 1994). Insider knowledge verified any concerns that sessions were excluded for unknown reasons and the range of activities helped to cross-check the representativeness of events to ensure the evidence was trustworthy. The selection involved decisions about when to cease observing to avoid replication of data and 'theoretical saturation' (Adler and Adler, 1994) and illuminated critical incidents, for example when a member of staff might demonstrate irregular behaviour, so important it could not be overlooked.

Taking themes from the CHAT activity systems - subject, object, tools, rules, community and the division of labour (see Fig. 3-1) observation schedules were semi-structured. They focused on the mediations (interactions) between these elements to understand the relationships between the leaders, followers and the material and symbolic artefacts in the given situation (Spillane, Diamond and Jita, 2003, p.538, Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009). Notes such as behaviour and attitudes, descriptions of what was said but not whole accounts of dialogue and context (physical setting, resources, time, day) were considered to be ecologically valid (Denscombe, 2003). Records were also made of how many people were involved, their class, gender, roles, characteristics, pedagogical styles and activity content. 'Thick description' (Geertz, 1973) aimed to portray what it is like to lead ELAs. However it was important that the field notes did not result in 'thick interpretation' and 'thick meaning' for the researcher, participants and thesis audience (LeCompte and Preissle, 1993, p.224; Carspecken 1996, p.44). The researcher's reflections were recorded simultaneously to the observation descriptions, as Lofland (1971) points out the two go hand in hand. They were made more efficient by insider knowledge and were typed up later to ease analysis. They attempted to be good enough to summon up vivid pictures. Any discrete actions such as gestures and non-

verbal communications were kept in context (Woods and West, 2010, p.437). Introducing quantitative measures such as counting occurrences of this behaviour was felt to be meaningless, needing individual explanation to be informative.

Being reflexive, the researcher was aware and honest about her own personal beliefs and values that may have biased this inquiry (Creswell and Miller, 2000 p.127), accepting that all research involves some level of participation since we cannot study the world without being part of it (Alder and Alder 1994). The researcher placed herself near the 'complete observer' end of LeCompte and Preissle's (1993, p.93-4) continuum from complete participant to complete observer. When observing a 'dance week' session, prior to the main research, the researcher was able to practise taking field notes to understand what might be good to focus on and how to capture data that would be relevant to this thesis. How recordings were arranged on paper became a particularly useful skill for understanding comments made. Field notes included personal reflective recordings from during and after the events. These ranged from immediate interpretations, comments on ethical issues faced, challenges and tensions from the insider position to aspects needing more clarification or further enquiry.

Despite knowing that audio-visual recordings offer good opportunities to capture situations it was decided that the children and staff, while accustomed to visitors, might react differently to a camera (Kember, 2000, p.41). The classrooms have limited space and pupils move around doing different activities so either the cameras would have to follow them or would not get the full picture. However, it was still possible, being under observation, the participants in both Centres might perform differently, described as the 'hawthorn effect' (Cook, 1962, p.116). In Centre A they may have wanted to impress the researcher, as their Line-manager. Equally, being too attached to these participants, may have prevented me from seeing them dispassionately (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p.158), becoming blind to the peculiarities investigated (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p.408). However, the triangulation of data from the other methods helped to verify behaviour and the prior knowledge from the insider position provided a backdrop of antecedent events, while non-insiders would only be able to explore the present.

Observations gave a first-hand account (Merriam, 2002, p.12) of 'aspects of the participants' perspectives they were reluctant to disclose in interviews. They were a flexible and powerful tool and provided the potential to verify data found in documents and interviews and provide a reality check on what was actually happening, because 'what people do may differ from what they say they do' (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2010, p.440). Some participants may have preferred the presence of an observer to an intrusive, time-consuming interview or questionnaire. However, others may have preferred speaking about what they wished to share and not want other parts of their practice scrutinised or revealed. The next section looks at the third method employed: interviewing.

4.4.3 Interviews

It was important to interview in addition to observing to allow the participants to describe their feelings, intentions, behaviours and attitudes and add new perspectives and richness to the data (Patton, 2002). Interviews were chosen over questionnaires or surveys as response rates were better if questions could be explained and potentially more truthful if attained through rapport (Oppenheim, 1992, p.89). They took place with the Manager and Teacher in each Centre with a regular Mentor and Volunteer chosen by the Manager from each Centre. Contrary to Fox, Goodey and Goulding's (1995) suggestion to interview senior people later to gain the picture fully from others first, this study began with the Managers, as they were implementing the leadership approach, then investigated afterwards through interviews with others. The interviews lasted about 30 minutes each and the researcher was aware that the context depicted how they saw her and her them. As they were talking about activity related to their jobs, it made sense that the interviews took place in the Centres around their working hours, allowing them to stay in that 'mode' and to feel confident in a more familiar and relaxed environment (Greig and Taylor, 1999). However, a private, sound-proofed space was used. As the interview was being recorded, it was also possible to make personal reflective notes in relation to feelings or concerns about the process in order to learn from experience. Other non-verbal data was collected such as descriptions of participant, location, seating arrangements and resources.

This study aimed for depth, complexity and roundness and to go inside the mind of another person to see and experience the world as they did themselves

(McCracken, 1998), although it was accepted that through interviews it may have been 'difficult to capture the inner experience' (Silverman, 1993). They were therefore neither objective nor subjective, but 'inter-subjective' to allow meaningful relations to be interpreted and in order to build an 'inter-view' (Kvale, 1996, p.284). The interviews took on an interactive approach with the interviewee having the opportunity to ask questions for clarification, or ask for examples, recognised as a successful technique (Basit, 2010, p.100). From the continuum of 'structured' to 'unstructured' interview schedules, 'semi-structured' interviews (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2010) were chosen to gain a rounded perspective that considered 'inter-relationships' (Patton, 2002). Using the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution developed for this thesis, the interview schedule was based upon the 'person-plus aspect' and the 'practice aspect' taken from Spillane's (2006) 'Distributed Leadership Perspective' and elements from the activity systems found in CHAT (see Appendix N).

The interviews were structured enough to search for what was known but also what could be found out through supplementary questions linked to previous responses. What interviewees wanted to say became as important as what they were asked. From a previous study (28.04.09) involving two young people, who had been part of the 2012 Games winning bid team in Singapore, the investigator had learnt that a balance was needed to ensure responses were made freely within a structure that would generate adequate data to answer the research questions without veering too far from the focus of the thesis. As guided conversations there was a balance between serving the needs of the line of inquiry, as set out by the theoretical framework, and remaining open and flexible (Yin, 2009, p.106). It allowed the interviewee to mentally 'move back and forth in time to reconstruct the past, interpret the present, and predict the future' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.273). Sufficient space was made on the interview notes in this study to collect recordings about not only body language and attitudes but the researcher's own personal reflections. After the interviews, to verify data the participants were given the interview transcript to check to avoid being accused of 'ventriloquy' (Fine, 1994, p.17).

While the 'researcher had power as the one with knowledge about the topic the interviewee had power as the gate-keeper to answers' (Basit, 2010, p.112) and in order to establish an 'inter-subjective' interview the pre-conceived notions

from both sides needed to be understood. The study addressed this by taking on an appropriate role as interviewer and not trying to impose opinions upon the interviewees and accepting their views even if they were different to their own. Seeing the interviewee in person also made anonymity and confidentiality more acute in Centre A as the relationships would continue afterwards (Bosit, 2010, p.116), but maintaining a level of rapport was essential to gain valid answers (McCracken, 1988, Oppenheim, 1992). Being too jokey could make interviewees too relaxed while being too formal could create a fear of being judged. It was important to develop trust, put interviewees at ease, show interest while taking notes and give support without introducing bias. Being more complicated at Centre A, both the researcher and the participants had to switch into a 'research role', while at Centre B, the investigator only knew the Manager so it was necessary to gain trust by chatting about other things first to break the ice. Despite attempts to create authentic data it was accepted that this might not have been fully possible, although it did not necessarily affect the rigour of the study. At both Centres participants might have veered from the truth because they felt important and were flattered, exaggerated to stimulate a reaction, wished to satisfy the interviewer (in the researcher's professional role as Line-manager), resented intrusion, were influenced by work-related politics or refrained from accuracy for fear of disclosure (Oppenheim, 1992, pp.64-65). Interviewing young people in the previous study had brought attention to the particular position of power the researcher took on as an adult, which was relevant to this thesis in working professionally in a senior management role to the participants in Centre A.

4.5 The organisation and analysis of the data

The development of a Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution for this thesis offered a new and creative way of analysing and interpreting data now accepted in research. It provided a framework for systematic analysis that could ask sensitive, sensible and intuitive questions that gave meaning to complex, diverse and disjointed data (Marshall and Rossman, 2010, p.157). The data was collected from the documents, observations and interviews and was organised using NVivo8, a software programme specifically designed for qualitative investigations, to ensure the data was filed and categorised effectively. However the researcher understood that NVivo8 was limited to this

purpose only and could not be used to analyse the data. The electronic versions of the interview transcripts, observational field notes and selected text from the electronic copies of documents were all uploaded into the software including any reflective notes that had been made during the process. Where documents included handwritten sections, such as appraisals or were hard copies of handbooks that could not be electronically copied, the text was typed into the software or photocopied, then coded in pen (see Appendices L and M). This followed an identical process to that of NVivo8, and when data was extracted from the software to support the findings the paper-coded sections were added. Coding allowed for the retrieval of evidence during analysis, enabling the comparison of information from different sources (Firestone and Martinez, 2009) discussed below in 4.5.

Borrowing concepts from content analysis (Robson, 2002), that looks for the recurrence of words, terms and images and those of textual analysis, the software was used to find areas in the text where words had appeared. Data could then be organised into categories and sub-categories represented by nodes and tree nodes in NVivo8. A node is defined as 'a collection of references about a specific theme, place, person or other area of interest' (Bryman and Bell, 2011, p.610). The node incorporated references to those portions of text in which the code had appeared. The tree nodes, held in a treelike structure, revealed the connections between them (Bryman and Bell, 2011). For this analysis the nodes were labelled with the names of elements found in CHAT activity systems: Subject, Object, Tools, Community, Rules and Division of Labour. The tree nodes were then labelled with the key areas of leadership distribution found in the DL literature. This combination is illustrated in figure 3-3 in section 3.2.1.

This study then took on a bottom up and theory led perspective by using the framework of CHAT with NVivo8. But it was quickly recognised that by grouping data under the heading of the elements only superficial meaning could be found. The concepts of CHAT are based upon the interactions between the elements within the activity systems and the focus on the mediations and contradictions in the leadership was being lost. For example, within the theme of external influences, the contradictions in the mediations between community

and the subject helped to explain the support and constraint of the environment, whilst the contradictions in the mediations between the rules and division of labour helped to explain what parameters the leadership activity were developed within. The mediations in the systems were in fact criss-crossing between the elements and it was natural therefore to consider the themes emerging from the patterns of contradictions rather than just the original categories formed by the elements alone.

Thematic analysis (Holloway and Toders, 2003, Braun and Clarke, 2006) was employed to look across the elements creating several areas of focus that were then applied to the data in NVivo8 as another layer of nodes. As thematic analysis is flexible and not tied to any specific theoretical framework it complimented the reflexive structure of activity systems developed for this thesis. Themes became new categories for grouping data and within them it was possible to compare and contrast the practice of leadership distribution across the two cases as described above in 4.3. Similarities and differences between the participant's own interpretations and those of the researcher (Basit, 2010, p.184) were explored across the three data sets consisting of responses, thoughts and behaviour of participants. This helped to develop a more cultural historical picture about the leadership in the Centres and give meaning and understanding as to how and why the leadership distribution was happening.

Although the data sets from documentary analysis, observations and interviews had been brought together in NVivo8, respect was given to their differences. Using CHAT it was important that these data sets were looked at together as they all represented the combined elements in an activity system that contribute to the activity of leadership distribution investigated in this thesis. Having been grouped together thematically the relevance of their source is paid more attention in the discussion in Chapter Six where for example the similarities between certain roles are explored in relation to what their perceptions are as captured through interviews, or the differences in structure of the distribution between the Centres based on the sessions observed and the documents analysed.

This research required constant interaction backward and forward throughout the process of categorizing and coding and related literature developed the guidelines for data analysis. As Marshall and Rossman (2010, p.156) suggest I questioned if knowledge and understanding of leadership had developed through distributed cognition; whether and if individuals' skills are acknowledged and harnessed; what leadership is created when individuals require expertise from each other; how contradictions between the elements are resolved to support leadership; whether participation and willingness influenced what leadership was distributed; what part was played by the social and cultural norms in the Centres; how artefacts shaped leadership practice; and what was the influence from the context and wider organisation in leadership distribution. Initially the data was tracked to see if it was appropriate to answer the research question by being 'on top of the data, not buried under it' Grbich (2007, p.25). Three approaches to looking at the data took place; the literal reading of words, interactions, structure of dialogue and visual data; the interpretation of participants perceptions of the social world; and the exploration of the researcher's role in gathering of data and own viewpoint.

Previous studies provided another data-set to support verification. As discussed in section 3.2.4, the Alignments of Leadership Distribution developed for this study from concepts found in the DL literature (Gronn, 2002; MacBeath, 2004; Spillane, 2006; Hargreaves and Fink, 2006; Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009) offered a structure for further analysis. This then investigated how mediations between the elements in the activity systems that were formally, pragmatically and organically aligned had become chaotic through interruptions, barriers and contradictions. In turn it aided the further description and discussion of what the distribution of leadership looked like in the Centres.

4.6 Ethical concerns for this study

This thesis endeavoured to maintain an 'ethical obligation to minimize misrepresentation and misunderstanding' (Stake, 1995, p.109, Basit, 2010, p.56). It demonstrated moral practice at every stage of the investigation, from planning the research design, negotiating access and fieldwork, through to analysis and writing up (Zinn, 1979; Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 2010; Mason, 2002; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2006). The ethical standards applied were

based on the BERA Guidelines (2011) in relation to all aspects of the research such as confidentiality, honesty about the aims and respect for the participants. While general ethical concerns are discussed here, those relating to individual methods are covered more fully in 4.5 above. There were no politically sensitive issues that might cause conflict between protecting the individual or the wider public. However, the potential impact of the research on vulnerable participants was considered to ensure they were protected and the project was approved by the East London University Ethics Committee. As expected permission from the gatekeepers such as the Line-managers in the partner organisations that oversee the Centres was granted prior to the investigation (Daymon & Holloway, 2011, p.60). Participants were given background information describing the purpose of the research, the benefits and possible audience and were asked to sign a consent form, explaining their right to 'opt out' (Rubin and Rubin, 2012) at any stage in the research. It was necessary to observe sessions in the Centres to learn more about leadership distribution, and where children under 16-years-old were present in sessions observed, parental signatures were sought. After typing up the transcripts they were sent to all participants to check the accuracy, to clarify issues on any topic of discussion and to ensure there was no risk of harm to them or their organizations. Reading text can sometimes make comments seem more critical and participants may have wanted to remove them but this did not arise as an issue. Should the research be published or used on websites further permissions will be sought.

Research that involves qualitative methods of data collection can raise ethical issues because of the closer relationships between the researcher and researched (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 2010). This concern is particularly relevant as the researcher was the Line Manager for Centre A, researching as an 'insider'. The formal position of power, heightened ethical complexities around voluntary informed consent (Busher and James, 2007), not made under duress, (BERA, 2011) underlining the need to respect the participants' 'privacy and wellbeing' (Merriam, 2002). The researcher entered the study as a guest ensuring throughout that the people in the setting were not inconvenienced or harmed emotionally, psychologically, physically or by reputation (Daymon & Holloway, 2011). However, due to the close relationship with the Centres, and as a line manager to Centre A, it was important staff did not think they were

being appraised during the observations or interviews, which might make them behave differently (Chavez, 2008, p.480). Nonetheless this study accepted that full and open answers may not have been totally possible and certain questions may have led to embarrassment if private thoughts were invaded and a feeling of being judged if there was a fear of disclosure to colleagues (Merriam, 2002). With this in mind it was important to make sure participants knew they could give their responses in confidence and they would be respected and valued.

Following the Data Protection Act 1998 the utmost confidentiality was assured (BERA, 2011). So far as was possible the identities of all participants were protected (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2010). Centres and staff were coded with 'A' and 'B', and any information that might lead to their identification was avoided. Documents that disclosed confidential information were not collected and the researcher did not participate in any of the educational activities. Being 'overt' about the purpose to avoid issues of dishonesty (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2010, p.441) she refrained from speaking or having any interaction apart from the initial introduction and to gain consent. As an insider the researcher wanted to keep this role separate from being a Line-manager, so there was no attempt to adopt a 'semi-participant role' (Moyle, 2007) to share the experiences at the end of the observation session. Any hard copies of documentation collected such as reports and policies were stored in a lockable filing drawer in a lockable office and recorded field notes and transcripts were saved electronically using coding to maintain anonymity on a secure computer system. Once the thesis is completed, files will be destroyed and any paper notes and hard copies of documentation will be incinerated ensuring that there is no possible way to retrieve confidential information. However, in this study even job roles could identify individuals as in many cases there is only one person in each role so anonymity was difficult and it was accepted that the researcher's professional connection with these Centres, might eventually reveal the identity of the participants although, as argued by Ezzy (2002), an element of transparency in methodology was necessary so that the reader could assess the robustness of the research.

4.7 Insider positionality

As almost a total insider for Centre A and sharing a large amount of professional experience with the participants as a previous Manager and now as its Line-manager, the researcher had a closeness and familiarity enabling her to provide unique insights into little known communities (Ohnuki-Tierney, 1984, p.585). Judging by Banks's (1998, p.8) linear concept of 'insiderness', the researcher was placed fairly close to the 'indigenous community or culture', professionally 'socialised in the community' and was someone who 'endorsed the values and culture.' She could speak with authority about it as a 'legitimate community member' (Banks, 1998, p.8). Having never worked in Centre B but sharing professional experience, values and beliefs with the Manager and the Centre's practices (Chavez, 2008, p.475), She was a partial insider or as Banks (1998, p.8) describes it an 'indigenous outsider.' The participants and the researcher were not in 'fixed or static' positions of 'insiderness', but as Naples (1996, p.140) puts it ever shifting and differentially experiencing with neither one having more objectivity. It was accepted that the insider/outsider dichotomy had multiple dimensions moving back and forth depending upon time, location, participants and topic (Mercer, 2007, p.2). This degree of perceived or real closeness impinged on others throughout the interview or observation as a result of shared experience or social identities such as race, gender and age. Building on Bank's (1998) continuum, Labaree (2002, p.117) plots the degree of insiderness on the x axis, outsidership on the y axis, and time on the z axis during 'which a researcher has gained insiderness at any given point'. While this phenomenon was not the focus of this study it allowed the researcher to reflect critically on the data generated. However, due to my different professional relationships with the Centres I was not at the same level in this continuum for both. Despite a conscious decision to be non-judgmental or have expectations and maintaining neutrality by refraining from reacting to behaviour or turning a blind eye to incidents, owing to my familiarity with staff and deeper knowledge of practice, it was nearly impossible to remain a total observer in Centre A.

Similarities and differences between the researcher and the participants are recorded below in Table. 4-1. The symbol '/' is used for similar, the symbol 'x' for different.

Researcher	Gender = F	Age 40+	White British	Qualified T	10+ yrs in PfS	Familiarity
Manager A	/	/	X	/	/	/
Teacher A	X	X	X	/	/	/
Mentor A	X	X	X	X	X	/
Volunteer A	X	X	/	X	X	/
Manager B	/	/	/	/	/	/
Teacher B	/	X	/	/	X	X
Mentor B	/	X	X	X	X	X
Volunteer B	X	X	X	X	X	X

Table 4-2 Similarities and differences between the researcher and participants

When the scores for professional familiarity are discounted, there were more similarities between the researcher and participants in Centre A, where she was a Line-manager, than in Centre B. She was similar to the Managers of both Centres in terms of gender, age and experience in general Extended Learning activities and in the PfS initiative. Teacher A had started working in PfS around the same time and had met me once before, while Teacher B was only of the same gender. There were many more differences with the Mentors and Volunteers in both Centres. It was important to be aware of how their various identities, created by personal background, cultural knowledge and skills, influenced their understanding of other people's orientations, which emerged over the course of enquiry. Abrams and Hogg (2004) explored group membership in relation to self and Chavez (2008, p.478) discusses how this might create a feeling of connection to groups which can elicit particular behaviours and impact on categorising self and others: 'You are like me but different'. This can then create bias in both positions. For example an insider might be overly positive, seeing through rose-coloured lenses or be blind to the ordinary, making assumptions due to prior knowledge. An outsider might be limited in outlook by personal values, beliefs, and perceptions, both resulting in a positivistic representation and interpretation (Chavez, 2008, p.475). By studying two centres researcher bias was challenged and through the comparison of Centre B with Centre A it was possible to look again at the latter with fresh eyes and a different viewpoint. It was understood that opinions should not be imposed upon the interviewees and their view should be accepted even

if the interviewer disagreed with it. Seeing the interviewee in person also made anonymity and confidentiality more acute in Centre A as the relationships would continue afterwards (Bosit, 2010, p.116).

Being both the object and subject in this study gave me some methodological advantages that were beneficial in the light of the limited resources (Labaree, 2002, Mercer, 2007). As a member of the community I already had an in-depth knowledge and understanding of the cultural and historical context of the activity that gave me a quicker access to the field, created less intrusion and established rapport (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009). However, familiarity created the challenge of establishing and maintaining appropriate rapport within expected boundaries (Sherif, 2001, p.437). There was the benefit of having an insight into the language adopted in the Centres and I could identify regular or unusual occurrences. As a previous manager for Centre A, now in a position of line-managing, I also had what Kanuha (2000, p.441) called a 'nested positionality'. Many of the documents, procedures and plans in the Centre had been created by me, including the Volunteer Mentoring programme, also operating in Centre B. Critical reflection was necessary to navigate the ambiguous and blurred boundaries between the researcher and the researched. It is possible I may not have recognised patterns due to familiarity with Centre A and the wider community of PfS that Centre B also belonged to. As an 'indigenous insider' (Banks, 1998, p.8) for Centre A, and 'indigenous outsider' for Centre B it was possible to appreciate some of the same values and beliefs that had developed into professional cultures. As an insider there was a necessity for me to have a critical awareness of things they might regard as normal or the assumptions of informants (Kondo, 1986, p.86). For example this thesis started with the loose assumption that the DL approach was employed in the Centres. To remain open to surprises it was imperative to develop a critical awareness of the process (Narayan 1993; Kacen & Chaitin, 2006), to look further than the things I wanted to find in the documents, encourage answers beyond what I wanted to hear and observe more than the things I wanted to see. Addressing the criticism that there is a lack of description of what insiders actually experience (Chavez, 2008, p.475), I considered the contribution I made to the data throughout the research, as discussed further in section 7.5.1.

4.8 Conclusion

By using the 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution' as proposed in Chapter Three, this investigation collected and evaluated qualitative data within an interpretative paradigm to consider the activity of leadership distribution within the PfS Centres. It paid particular attention to the contextual features, or the 'cultural arena' (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). History, place and culture were important elements in constructing this meaning through the activity systems offered by CHAT. Case study research was chosen over experimental or survey methods for its ability to deal with a variety of sources of evidence and this research commenced with an open phase and wide field of focus without selectivity or prejudgement, looking at leadership distribution as a whole. Leadership distribution was viewed against the ideals and concerns of DL established in 2.5 and this research aimed to develop a case from which others might learn, agreeing with Flyvbjerg (2006, p.222) that 'the force of example' is underestimated.

The methods of documentary analysis, observation and interviewing, were employed and using a coding system data was collated and organised into the categories of the elements in the activity systems, within the computer software NVivo8 and during this process a second layer of codes emerged. The comparisons in this study crossed three levels of scrutiny illustrated in the CHAT activity systems that identified contradictions. To verify the findings with another data set, they were placed against 'Alignments of Distribution' based on the DL literature (Gronn, 2002; MacBeath, 2004; Hargreaves and Fink, 2006; Spillane, 2006; Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009) discussed in 2.7.1. This helped to describe and discuss how and why leadership distribution occurred in the Centres. As an insider for this research preconceived notions of the investigator were critically reflected on throughout the research process, especially due to 'nested positionality' (Kanuha, 2000, p.441), with the researcher having written many of the documents analysed. They were 'intellectually and culturally' close to the 'indigenous community or culture' (Banks, 1998, p.8), but moved through the multiple dimensions of the insider/outsider dichotomy depending upon time, location and activity. Although facing challenges as an insider, they still gained a privileged position to research from.

5 Chapter Five – The Findings

5.1 Introduction

The previous Chapter explained how data from the interviews, observations and documentary analysis were captured through the 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution'. It has drawn on key concepts from the Distributed Leadership Perspective (Spillane, 2006) that recognises leadership activity as involving formal and informal leaders and their practice in shaping and driving an organisation towards a shared vision. However, despite the recognised benefits, the researcher agrees with others (Hatcher, 2005; Gronn, 2009), that the term 'Distributed Leadership' (DL) itself is misleading and contradictory because it might only mean the leader as a 'distributor' is delegating tasks. For this reason this thesis prefers to see DL as highlighting ideal practice for all leadership distribution. These ideals involve all in decision making to create a shared vision, sense of democracy and greater commitment, avoiding alienation and relieving tensions around power, shifting focus from individual attributes and behaviours to a more systemic perspective, encouraging empathy, and trust and risk taking for all leadership that is distributed. But it recognises that this practice might still have issues concerning integrity, willingness and participation. They could include compliance for job security, tick-boxing to follow organisational equal opportunity policies or off-loading of management tasks that could result in staff exploitation. The Cultural Historical Activity Theory has offered a structure to analyse the action of leadership distribution within the Centres, to consider both the DL ideals and the *contradictions* (issues and barriers to DL) explored in Chapter Three above.

This Chapter presents the findings and analysis of the data collected. A full account of what documents were collected and what interview and observational research activity took place can be found in Appendices I, J and K. The computer software NVivo8 supported the organisation of data under the headings of elements employed in the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution created for this thesis (see Appendix Q) and interpretations were formed through rigorous analysis in the light of the existing DL literature. Taking the comparative case study approach, the results for Centre A and for Centre B are presented alongside each other to provide opportunities for appreciating similarities and differences and references are made to the researcher's own

reflections where relevant, listed again in Appendix S. A fuller account of how activity systems were used in the analysis can be found in Appendices T, U, V and W. The findings are presented below within the key themes that emerged from the data: Inspiration and aspiration, External influence on the leadership process, Internal influences on the leadership process, Building a common knowledge and Perceptions about Leadership that has been distributed. Within each there are further sub-themes.

5.2 Inspiration and aspirations within leadership distribution

The first theme that emerges from the data is about the inspirations and aspirations of the staff. In relation to the analysis through activity systems, staff are referred to as *subjects* in the Centres who mediate with the *object*, being the overall goal for the Centre or for themselves in the theoretical lens. Findings are presented below in the two sub-themes of: The influence of an inspiring environment on leadership distribution and Developing aspirations to achieve through leadership distribution.

5.2.1 The influence of the environment on leadership distribution

From the data it is apparent the inspiring environments Centres were placed in are influencing the distribution of leadership. In the CHAT activity systems the *community* or context of the Centres operating from within high profile sports venues is mediating between all the other elements but in particular *rules*, *subject* and *tools*. The Playing for Success (PfS) initiative aimed to raise pupils' standards by using the unique environment of high profile sports venues and offering provision that felt 'different from school' (PfS, 2011). In the analysis of documents it is apparent that the formal leaders in both Centres saw this as a priority. The mission statement for Centre B in the 2010 Annual Report, p.2 declares:

[name of Centre omitted] Playing for Success project uses a combination of study and football. The key focus is on supporting literacy, numeracy and ICT skills amongst young people as well as using sport to foster motivation for learning. In addition we will help to develop pupils' self-esteem, confidence and independent learning skills.

This tells us that Centre B has a clear aim of using the environment to gain the attention and interest of pupils, recognising that the development of social

emotional skills will also help them to achieve back in school. The mission statement for Centre A, in the promotional brochure, p.1, claims:

Within an exciting innovative and creative leading edge teaching environment we aim to deliver learning opportunities supporting local need and national objectives to inspire our young people and wider community to reach their potential and to instil an ethos to succeed.

The two statements are very similar in relation to raising educational achievement through a positive ethos but there are also clear differences. Centre B's mission statement emphasises the importance of using sport to motivate, most likely as the Centre operates from within the football club itself. Centre A's mission statement emphasises the importance of supporting local need, most likely because the Centre, while housed in the football club, operates from within the local authority.

This different emphasis continues. For example, in the promotional brochure for Centre A, p. 2, it is described as being in a 'world class sporting venue' and as an 'exciting and innovative teaching environment that holds a real wow-factor for the learners.' Centre A is also described as having a 'multimedia rich environment' that is 'cutting edge' in the QiSS kite mark summaries, p.2. However, in the promotional brochure for Centre B there is more emphasis on football. On p.1, it states that the Centre has an 'excellent base' within the football club's grounds and under 'desirable' in the person specification for the Teacher at Centre B, it requires them to have skills to work with children in an 'out of school environment,' with some 'knowledge and interest in football and other sports,' while in Centre A the person specification for the Teacher only requires experience 'in out of school hours activities for children' and an enjoyment in working with a 'variety of organizations inside and out of education.'

Using inspiration as content for activities, lessons are described in promotional brochure for Centre A, p.1, as 'connected to real life' with 'tangible end products.' The link between learning and a vocation is observed in the summer school session at Centre A, dated 14.09.01:

Media lady arrives to be interviewed by the pupils...she explains her role and what she does...she talks about getting good qualifications in English writing, grammar correct and being creative...

Involving the media lady from the football club, as an external resource to what is normally found in the classroom, is an example of the development of partnerships in Centre A to create social capital and highlights the external influences on the leadership.

Contributing to the action from the community element, the Managers of the Centres tried to harness the excitement of the Olympics and Paralympics for their pupils and staff. In the 2010 Annual Report for Centre B, it states on p.1: 'The Olympics have become a major part of most of the PfS programme content'. In a news article (accessed at 17:19, 11/10/12) the Chief Executive of the Football Foundation, Centre B sits within, explained that hosting the Olympic and Paralympic teams in the Club was the 'icing on the cake' and a 'one off opportunity' that had 'motivated' them and was 'shaping their futures.' There is evidence that this involvement provided opportunities for the distribution of leadership that raised confidence levels and motivated individuals to take on responsibilities and participate. For example Manager B believed the teacher 'wouldn't have had the opportunity if she had been just a class teacher' in school.

Exploiting the sporting theme, both Centres delivered activities relating to the Olympics and Paralympics which developed opportunities in the distribution of leadership. For example the national PfS 'Pass it On' programme offered opportunities for staff to lead in the Centre and beyond. In Centre B's application to join the London Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (LOCOG) Get Set Network Manager B describes how she 'sits on the national PfS steering group' to represent her region and contributed an activity to share, evidenced by the 'Pass it On – Paralympic Heroes' lesson plan. There are many examples of when the pupils and the staff who supported them got involved with inspiring activities. In the Summer School Games promotion session observed at Centre A, dated 14.09.12, field notes state: 'children involved in PR event for Club on BBC News (with) Silver Medal rower from 2012 Games' whilst in the Summer School session observed at Centre B, dated 14.07.12, it is recorded 'pupils created an Opening Ceremony banner to welcome an Olympic team into

the Stadium' and 'junior reporters were trained to interview athletes alongside the professionals during the Games.' This is backed up in a local newspaper article, entitled 'Children from [name of Centre omitted] to form Guard of honour at start of Athletes' parade' (accessed online 11.10.12 at 17:17). It is evident that leading up to and during 2012 the Centres followed the curriculum from the 2012 'Get Set' programme, adopting the Games Values (LOCOG, 2009) introduced in 1.5.1. The lesson plan for the Primary Session week 3, dated 12.5.09, states that 'pupils choose topic area and pick story in one of the Olympic/Paralympic Values.' It is recorded in the report for Manager B that the Teacher needs to complete 'target setting Olympic Values scheme of work.' The injection of an exciting and inspiring theme in the curriculum might have made staff more willing to participate in leadership offered to them.

The importance of developing values in Distributed Leadership (DL) was discussed in Chapter two, however, Mentor A suggested using the Olympic and Paralympic Values in the curriculum did not really have a big impact on them. He claimed in fact the Values 'fitted the ethos' of the Centres, stating that values were there before but 'just weren't highlighted'. He claimed 'pretty much our whole ethos is built around the [same] values,' thus echoing Torres (2010, p.3) belief that Games Values are actually 'moral values.' Teacher A also agreed with this and felt:

...we have had the distributed leadership with staff members...pre bid and pre the focus on the Games...we have just carried on...the Values haven't dictated that, it's a natural thing...found to be valuable.

This could indicate that the Government agendas of Extended Schools and Every Child Matters (2005) had encouraged strong ethical values in Centre A before, through the local authority or through the PfS initiative, or that the staff had brought in their own morals as a team.

There is evidence that working in sports clubs provided a different sort of working environment for students and staff, influencing social norms and the distribution of leadership. For example, Volunteer A felt this is why pupils were motivated. He said 'children didn't realise they were learning, leaving with more confidence and inspired,' a view also expressed in the PfS national evaluations (NfER, 2007). In Centre B it was observed during the Saturday school session,

dated 14.07.12, that a pupil was told 'it's not school' when asking to go to the toilet and Manager B explained that 'it's a completely different world' and those with behaviour problems and 'school phobics' work better in a more 'professional' environment. She explained that working in the Centres is 'very different to anything else you would do' with expectations from schools developing more reciprocal mediations between elements, allowing leadership distribution to be creative. Without 'pressures from Ofsted and the national curriculum', Mentor B felt leadership could be different stating 'policies were less restricting, creating a different, atmosphere.' Children were not in uniform, possibly emphasizing more individuality and less demarcation of status between staff and pupil' as discussed by Levesque (2011).

However, Manager B was concerned that now funding has decreased the 'wow factor' will be lost as equipment will not be replaced.

...when PfS [funding] went, that is what gave me funding for facilities and equipment (like the)...computer suite...I have problems (with the IT equipment) all day long and I feel sorry for the kids...this year we have never run so many courses all at once...we have to do things as skimpily as we can...

From this comment we can see the cut in resources caused contradictions in the activity system between the tools and all of the other elements, forcing PfS Centres who survived to adapt their provision. This challenge could impact on opportunities for Volunteers and Mentors learning to lead in the future. Having an inspiring environment can motivate staff to be willing to participate in leadership but too much work with limited resources might ultimately make staff want to remain within their job description requirements or even leave.

5.2.2 Developing aspirations to achieve through leadership distribution

There is evidence that through leadership distribution staff have become tools for each other and knowledge and understanding is shared, making individuals more powerful (Gronn, 2002). Analysing the data through the interactive activity systems (see Appendix W) it was possible to see where staff relationships were reciprocal. There were many examples that demonstrated how staff supported each other to take on leadership. In the Brochure for Centre A, p.2, it states: 'Our aim is to inspire young people and adults in the wider community to

develop further aspirations and to reach their full potential.’ This implies the ethos of the Centre was to encourage staff to progress to better jobs within the Centre and beyond. Manager A explained that as formal leaders they are here to ‘sow that first seed of inspiration’ and ‘without inspiration you haven’t got anything.’ Mentor A adds they also try to ‘inspire and support each other’ in things outside of work, which Volunteer A reflected was ‘the same thing that we try to get the kids to do’ and claimed he had ‘always been inspired’ by ‘those above and below’ him to aspire to greater things, as they ‘have great ideas.’ Manager B referred to her seniors as ‘educated guys,’ ‘inspirational’ and ‘visionary,’ and described how a poster of one of her coaches, who plays at another club is a ‘role model’ for pupils and staff. It was apparent that aspiring to develop new skills to progress to a different role was encouraged, which it could be argued is necessary for leadership distribution to work.

Described as a ‘journey’ by Manager B, the volunteer programme ran at both Centres formed a system to progress individuals from student to staff. In their portfolio Volunteers were expected to include ‘examples of pupils using the activity’ that they designed and led. In the steering group minutes dated 28.02.12, p.2 it is written: ‘Volunteers have been a crucial part in our delivery’ and Manager A explained they might lead a small group of pupils to take ‘the first step on the ladder...towards leadership.’ Volunteer B reflected that he enjoyed sharing his story with others and the ‘entitlement’ and ‘leadership opportunity’ he gained. In the summer school Games promotion session, dated 19.09.12, a Mentor spoke about how mentoring had turned ‘his life around’ aged fifty-seven. The researcher noted that the:

Mentor gives children an overview of his experience of gaining an inspiring people’s award and attending the closing ceremony, won for demonstrating the values through his work.

This demonstrated that Centre A used the success of a member of staff to motivate pupils and, one imagines also inspired the other Volunteers in the session, motivating them to participate in leadership.

Explaining that it ‘helps to keep everyone motivated,’ in their interviews Manager A and Mentor A both described ‘credit’ given to individuals, for demonstrating good skills or offering great ideas. Manager A describes how

Mentor A 'started initially as a Volunteer and became a paid mentor and is now our volunteer coordinator.' Volunteer A referred to his 'ascent to an administrative role' as he was 'noticed for completing tasks quickly.' However, this can create contradictions in the mediations between the elements of *subject, rules and division of labour*. When staff members show a willingness and ability to participate, and are encouraged 'organically' (see 3.2.4) to be involved without going through a formal procedure other staff might see this participation as an unfairly assigned promotion. For example, even when there was no monetary value attached to the leadership activities, Volunteer A still felt his additional duties in the office were equated with power and due to this he believed sometimes he was 'not the most liked Centre admin.' However, this may have been his own perception as there is no evidence from other staff this had caused the conflict or sense of competition of the sort identified in DL by Storey (2004, p.250).

There is evidence to demonstrate staff in Centre A have been inspired by their Manager to develop their leadership skills. Manager A claimed that she was 'quite happy about the career progression,' stating that '80% of our mentors who have completed the mentoring course have gone into full-time employment' within schools either as a teacher or a learning mentor. She went on to explain:

For example one of our mentors (name omitted) has been with us for a long time and he was our lead mentor previously and has now moved on and done his PGCE and he has already got a job in one of our primary schools and I jokingly always say to him I am sure you will be one of the youngest ever head teachers in Newham that they have hired and I am absolutely certain that this is true as well and I know that in his interview for his first school they were asking him what his future plans are and he said well I would like to shadow the head teacher as soon as possible and you know move into the school management and they were very impressed with and promised him that he could do that in his first year working as a teacher at the school so, I think my premonition will come true.

This illustrates that whilst working in Centre A staff have developed big ambitions. However, Manager A expressed concern that the ethos and the empowerment of staff was actually a 'disservice' because it might cause 'disappointment' if it gave a false idea about working life. This highlights contradictions and tensions in the mediations between the elements of *subject*, *rules*, *division of labour* and *object*. Knowing that inspiration doesn't always lead to better things could potentially create less trust, an important aspect of DL (Davies and Davies, 2006, p.34), leaving staff feeling frustrated and resentful. Volunteer B said 'we all knew deep down...the children...were not going to get a good deal necessarily from the Olympics,' echoing the findings of other studies (Naul, 2008, p.145). While the Games acted as a useful motivator, it was evident that assimilating Olympic opportunities into the curriculum as a new tool could cause contradictions and tensions in the mediations. For example, it was observed, during the Saturday school session at Centre B dated 14.07.12 that Teacher B felt out of her depth leading a session to create an athletes' welcome banner within a short deadline. The researcher reflects that the 'teacher is not trained in art' and uses words like 'pressure' and 'frustration,' illustrating she is uncomfortable. Being involved in something inspirational had become more important than how the Centre's pupils and staff might benefit and little thought had been given to the ability of staff and the stress that a new activity might bring.

From these findings it is apparent that while the Centres encouraged staff to develop their skills through leadership distribution it was not always carried out in informative and transparent ways. While some were inspired to participate and proud of their new skills others felt obliged to accept distribution but felt uncomfortable or exploited.

5.3 External influence on the leadership distribution

The second theme that emerges from the data is about how leadership distribution is influenced by the external organisations surrounding the Centres. Centre A operated as part of the local authority while Centre B operated as part of the football club. As Playing for Success (PfS) Centres they were also part of a larger initiative made up of 162 centres nationally established by the New Labour Government's Department for Education and Skills. Data was analysed through 'macro' activity systems (see Appendix T), to consider what historical

influence these different organisations, represented by *community*, had on the Centres leadership actions. As a vehicle for New Labour agendas over thirteen years, the Centres grew alongside a wealth of Extended Learning related agendas. These were dropped by the Conservative Liberal Democrat Coalition (DfE, 2012) in 2010 and not replaced. When PfS funding ceased in 2011, the Centres were able to remain in the Football Clubs but came under greater influence from their previously strongest partner who adopted them, for Centre B the Community Trust of the Club, in the case of Centre A the LA. Documents still used by the Centres have been included in the analysis, even if historic and not made in 2012, to demonstrate how Centres developed leadership distribution throughout these changes. Findings are presented below in the two sub-themes: The influence of Government agendas on leadership distribution, and Partner Organisation's influence on leadership distribution.

5.3.1 The influence of Government agendas on leadership distribution

The Extended Schools agenda (DfES, 2005, p.8) expected all state schools in England to deliver 'a varied menu of after-school activities' by involving all stakeholders. In the QiSS kite mark summaries, p.2, Centre A describes its work as a partner organisation to schools as 'integral' and the 'drive' to delivering the 'core offer.' In its promotional brochure for schools Centre A identifies how each course complements Extended School's outcomes. This suggests how it would like to be seen by others. But there was evidence that Centre A attempted to meet these agendas through the distribution of leadership. Networking and sharing expertise to develop social capital (Worley, 2005) is demonstrated by Centre A, which employed a steering group. The minutes of the meeting dated February 2012, p.3, indicate that a range of members were part of the group including schools, business and staff in different roles at the Centre. In these minutes, it is stated under recent and current projects: 'Digging deep / 10 workshops in partnership with [University name omitted] for post 16 learners'. This is backed up by a flier for activities running throughout spring 2012, confirming it to be 'a 2 hour investigation into a unique archive collection on the history and legacy of the Olympic Games.' There is no evidence of a working steering group at Centre B. However, a press release, accessed on line 11.10.12, indicates they hosted an event for local schools in July 2009, titled 'Uniting Schools, Exciting Communities' for 'encouraging networking opportunities' and it enabled attendees to 'discuss

Olympics curriculum...to inspire ideas.’ It is apparent that by following the Extended Schools agenda the distribution of leadership was encouraged.

The Every Child Matters (ECM) agenda (DfES, 2003) was established by New Labour to address social injustice. It expected Extended Learning Activities (ELAs) to contribute to two of the five outcomes: ‘enjoying and achieving’ and ‘making a positive contribution’ and it crossed several ideals of DL (MacBeath, 2008, pp.144-145). ECM is described as being ‘embedded’ in the Centres’ delivery. The promotional brochure for Centre A, p.2, lists how a course for schools meets the Extended Schools and ECM agendas. On p.1 of the Promotional Literature for Centre A it states: ‘Young people and stake holders’ voices are heard’ and in the QiSS kite mark summaries, on p.2 it states that:

The Centre works towards delivering provision that is motivating and is a positive learning experience for young people, supporting them to ‘enjoy and achieve’ and ‘make a positive contribution to society,’ as stated in the Every Child Matters outcomes framework.

It is apparent that this was written to not only reflect on good practice in the Centre but to also impress the audience who might be more willing to engage with the Centre as a result or award a kite mark in relation to the QiSS recognition scheme.

The PfS initiative was expected to respond to inequalities in pupil attainment (PfS 2011) and in the Promotional Literature for Centre B, on p.1 it claims ‘raising standards is one of the most important challenges facing this country.’ It is evident that this was a priority for both Centres. For example, the lesson plan for the PfS after school session observed at Centre A, dated 02.07.12, stated it was targeted at ‘underachieving primary students.’ Mentor B described pupils arriving from schools across the Borough with different ‘backgrounds,’ ‘learning difficulties’ and who ‘struggle with confidence levels.’ However, it was not apparent whether there were rewards or consequences and if the impact made a difference, although reports on pupils were expected to go back to schools, as listed in Teacher B’s appraisal report, dated 03.05.12.

In various documents for both Centres the commitment to the ECM-related Personalised Learning agenda (2005) is expressed. For example, in Centre A’s Staff handbook, it states ‘support is targeted and curriculum is personalised.’ In

the Annual Evaluation 2011 for Centre A, p.4, it stipulates that 'care' is taken 'to shape teaching to suit different learning styles and to nurture the unique talents of every pupil.' In the PfS After School session observed at Centre A, dated 02.07.12, field notes record 'some students working together, some solo'.

Teacher B felt that staff could be more 'personal' with the children as the team and class were 'so small' and my comments reflected 'because the knowledge and understanding of a pupil's needs could be mediated more quickly across fewer roles.' Teacher B described it as 'a journey that we all go on, so there isn't a wrong answer,' suggesting that an awareness of social justice had been heightened for both pupils and colleagues through this personalised approach.

There is evidence that both Centres believe in a high ratio of staff to pupils. In the Annual Evaluation 2011 for Centre A, p.4, it claims that Centre policy is to keep this 'as high as possible' to ensure the 'development of confidence-boosting relationships' and maintain New Labour's ideal that 'no child is left behind' (DCSF, 2006). All sessions observed for this study had one member of staff to two or three pupils (see Appendix J). For example, in the PfS After School session at Centre B, dated 04.06.12 there was 1 teacher and 3 mentors named for a class of ten students from year seven. From my professional knowledge of the Centre I knew this to be normal practice at both Centres. However, the Centres were managing potential interruptions in mediations between the *rules* (for high ratios set by PfS) and *tools* (the cut in funding) to not only benefit pupils, but allow less experienced staff to shadow before leading.

The data collected from the job descriptions suggests the ECM agenda influenced their content as there is an emphasis on 'equal opportunity' and the 'encouragement of sharing leadership.' Mentor A claimed they had a 'strong team-working environment' and Volunteer A said:

You are helping the teacher you are supporting and that comes with the job because no one could do just their own jobs and everyone is here for each other.

This comment reflects Volunteer A's understanding of how the team of staff work together to carry out the responsibilities echoing the concept of an involvement of all stakeholders as desired by the New Labour.

Manager A stated that 'decisions are made jointly regarding strategies and directions' and believed there wasn't an 'attitude' in the classroom or office where roles were 'higher' than one another. It is apparent that this participation in decision-making promoted greater commitment, vision, and higher staff morale found in DL (Woods and Gronn, 2009, p.447). The QiSS summaries for Centre A stipulated, p.3, that 'all are encouraged to take leadership where appropriate and develop their skills in a supportive and sharing environment'. This is evident in the PfS After School session observed at Centre A, dated 02.07.12, where field notes state: 'Mentors take an equal role alongside teacher in steering the groups, equal confidence – sense of knowledge and expertise.' This emphasis on equality might have helped to resolve potential contradictions in mediations from negative consequences associated with leadership succession (Fink, 2010), an ideal of DL.

The data highlights the importance given to empathy in both Centres, which possibly grew out of the social justice stance of the ECM agenda (Gross and Shapiro, 2005, p.1). For example, the 'Social Emotional Aspects of Learning' (SEAL) (DCSF, 2007, p.4) programme that was designed to develop the ability to empathise in pupils, is listed as an outcome in the lesson plan for the PfS After School session in Centre B, 04.06.12 to 'provide opportunities to develop social emotional literacy skills.' Empathy is acknowledged by staff. Volunteer A reflects: 'Sometimes relationships do get a bit strained' and believed a 'Manager needs foresight before fostering leadership qualities...you need to be quite a nurturing person as well.' However, Manager A thought this could be acquired:

You need to work constantly on staff relations, it does demand input on a different level than if you did a nine to five job...you just do your bit...You can't work like that if you want to distribute the leadership, everyone has to feel included...feel they are listened to and cared about. Really, it's a closer way of working together.

She demonstrates here that there should be an awareness of what is happening when leadership is distributed and the benefits.

It was apparent that PfS training encouraged the belief that emotional intelligence could be developed in leaders (Humphrey, Lendrum and Wigglesworth, 2010). Manager B explained:

it's about blue side, red side emotional stuff...it's about kids and what triggers them off, knowing I am in the red zone now, how do I get back into the blue zone?

It could be imagined that in developing an awareness in the students about their emotional well-being it encouraged staff to consider theirs in turn building emotional intelligence useful when distributing leadership.

This focus on empathy through the SEAL programme may have helped Manager B, to be as she says, 'more approachable than a lot of people in the organisation' as those managing her did not have any 'people skills' and upset staff by being 'blunt.' Staff in both Centres discuss giving respect to earn it, regardless of their background or views on others. Talking about her expectations from seniors, Mentor B explained they should be polite and not 'command' anybody to do anything. Manager B hoped her team thought she respected them 'as well as they respect me' and felt 'this is the core to our success: people care and are loyal'.

The desire for social democracy, in Centre A, leading to commitment and shared vision, fits with the ideals of DL in re-thinking power concepts towards a community-anchored organization (Murphy, 2009, p.183). As a result of the Extended Schools agenda, Centre A employed a steering group to create a network of individuals (Bennett *et al.*, 2003, p.7) and its QiSS kite mark summaries talked about the expectation for a 'learning team' to present to the scrutineers instead of the Manager, demonstrating shared ownership. However, sharing decisions might create interruptions in mediations in the activity system and make leadership weaker. Individuals might not wish to go against the consensus in order to avoid shame, conflict or lose group membership (Robbins, Judge and Millet, 2014). Data is presented for this in 5.6.2 below.

It is apparent that, through the need to meet agendas and take on the tools encouraged by the Government and PfS, the distribution of leadership has been encouraged. The Extended Schools agenda required Centres to build social

capital, which encouraged networking and the sharing of resources, including staff skills. The ECM agenda encouraged Centres to become more empathetic and understanding about staffs needs' including how to motivate them to get involved and become committed to the vision of the Centres.

5.3.2 Partner organisation's influence on leadership distribution

Data reveals how leadership distribution in the Centres is influenced by accountability to partners as discussed in the Distributed Leadership literature (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.277). Under a three-way partnership Centres benefited from the balance of the PfS, LA and Club's organisational cultures. In Centre B's 2010 annual evaluation report, p.1 it states that the 'Local Authority can influence the schools that we work with,' a view supported by Manager B, who describes the pressure to 'drive on the work' in local schools. In Centre B's Brochure, p.2, it mentions they are commissioned by the LA to run 'two supplementary Saturday schools' and 'twice-yearly steering group meetings.' It is evident that Centre B lost some of the collaborative and inter-agency practice that creates flatter structures (Gronn, 2002) when it moved further under the Club's direction. Unlike Centre A, there was no evidence of an annual report or a steering group and from documents analysed Centre B relied more on internal formal reporting structures and staff observations, as evidenced in 5.4.1 below.

For both Centres school partnerships remained a focus and the 'network of interacting individuals' was valued, as found in DL (Bennett *et al.*, 2003, p.7). Both Managers believed success to be dependent on 'really firm relationships' between Centres, schools, pupils and parents, echoing the national evaluation for PfS (NfER, 2007) that found partnership work to be 'critical, before, during and after the programme' (NfER, 2007, p. iii). This was illustrated by a Head Teacher's request for a Mentoring course for year eight pupils to 'feed into in-school learning,' as recorded in Centre A's steering group minutes dated 28.02.12, and Teacher B explaining that an issue with a child was resolved through good communication. The school acknowledged 'your team were magnificent because you picked up the issue the week the school picked it up,' illustrating DL's ideal of 'concertive action' (Gronn, 2002, p.431).

While staff and programmes in Centre B followed Club philosophy, the data tells us Centre A was expected to be more in-line with the Local Authority's. It focused on partnership work to develop 'capacity, skills, independence and

resilience' to meet the 'challenges of adult life in the 21st century' (LA, CYPS plan, 2011-2014). In Manager A's Job Description, under key tasks and accountabilities it stated 'to take a strategic lead,' to deliver a 'high quality service for children and families' and to 'work with other council departments to promote an integrated and progressive approach'. Other job descriptions, expected staff to 'assist in the implementation' of community education services to meet the 'specific needs' and 'to understand and promote its policies in their work.' In particular they needed to ensure that 'publicity materials were in-line with corporate council guidance'. Manager A explained:

Well, we are part of the LA and follow all their structures and outlines and policies and targets and aims etc., but in many ways we are quite independent now because we are a partnership project with the club so quite unique in that sense.

Manager A's comment suggests that mediations between the *subject, tools* and *rules* in the activity systems were not rigid and could be reciprocal to create innovative practice.

However, while housed by the Club, Centre A had very little formal relationship with it. Partnership projects were described in the minutes of the Steering Group, dated 28.02.12, stating 'the 'Club is supportive of the provision.' There is evidence on the Club's website, accessed, 13.03.2012, of there being 'joint bids for funding,' but no formal document was found, such as a contract, outlining expectations or governance from the Club. As the researcher was also the Line-manager for the Centre they knew there to be none. Expected to take a 'lead on high level negotiations' with the Club, Manager A referred to them as being more 'hierarchical' and 'traditional' than the Centre. This influenced how the distribution of leadership in relation to the Club was more formal discussed in Chapter Six.

In contrast to Centre A's distant relationship with the Club that hosts them, the Club Centre B operates from, expressed pride in housing it in its handbook, p.1 and Manager B, proudly stated the Club's was 'not like your average'. In Centre B's Brochure and on the Club's website, accessed, 12.03.2012, it explained how the needs of the community were addressed using 'sport and achievement,' to develop positive attitudes regarding 'health and fitness,'

'lifelong learning' and 'respect for themselves and others.' Teacher B explained how the session begins with 30 minutes of physical activity in the gym and the field notes for the observation, dated 04.06.12 record: 'Mentors support this activity while the Teacher waits in the classroom.' As PfS (2011) only set out to deliver classroom-based activity, this additional content is directed by the Club. Here we see the element of *community* mediating with the *object* in the macro activity system, setting new objectives.

However, it is apparent that Football Clubs are not just inspiring venues as they carry their own issues. Manager B states that 'she spent time in schools...didn't like the politics...so I came here and there are a different kind of politics.' It is imagined she is referring to the vulnerable nature of the partnership, reliant on the Football Club's unpredictable success and funding. As Manager A explains further:

Our position is, on a day to day basis, re-negotiated all the time... it's been quite a big challenge for our whole staff team, in fact we all have to get used to working in a situation that's very flexible and changing all the time and that can be quite stressful, but I guess some people will never be able to get used to it.

The data reveals that if staff want to work in the Centres they have to accept what Volunteer A describes as 'trying' times in challenging situations. The unpredictable nature of working in a Football Club creates contradictions between *community* and all of the other elements in the activity systems. Fearful that the Club could 'pull out completely', Volunteer A talked about the pressure from them to deliver 'a really good service' to gain future work with schools. Manager B echoes this in her description of the staff structure; 'Oh my god, I can't remember it all and it's just changed as well.' She states: 'It's all about following the funding in the end so you have to accept that's how it is going to be really'.

It is apparent that the leadership distribution approach of the Centre Managers is influenced by the agendas, training and guidance coming from the organisations around them. For example the local authority have directed Centre A to be more focused on the needs of the local community, to suit their own agendas while the football club has directed Centre B to be more focused

on using sport as a means to boost attainment and healthy living to suit their own agendas. However, with so many other national agendas under PfS and New Labour, such as Extended Schools and ECM, these Centres are left with a lot to achieve and what may seem ideal by these organisations may be unrealistic to put in to practice. Therefore the Managers have had to find their own ways of distributing the leadership meaning personal individual skills, interests and ideology have also become more influential as to how it is employed, as discussed below.

5.4 Internal influence on the leadership distributions

The third theme that emerges from the data considers how the leadership in the Centres was influenced by the individuals and ‘human action’ (Rollinson, 2008, p.5). This theme focuses on relationships between the Manager, Teacher, Mentor and Volunteer at each Centre. Through the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution, developed for this thesis, it is possible to analyse how contradictions might arise between elements in the ‘interactive activity systems’ in the Centres (see Appendix V). It is divided into sub-sections of findings under the headings of Individual’s Knowledge and Skills, Interactions between Staff and The role of trust in the distribution of leadership.

5.4.1 Individual’s knowledge and skills

The data provides evidence that a wide range of skills is expected of individual staff in the Centres, reflecting the situation across all Extended Learning Activities (ELAs). For example, Teacher B’s job description states that it is ‘essential’ she has ‘extensive knowledge and experience of using ICT in an educational setting’ and ‘desirable’ that she has experience of ‘working with young people in an out of school environment’ and of ‘working with students from a wide range of ethnic minority groups.’ For Centre B, it is also ‘desirable’ that the Teacher has some ‘understanding and interest in maximizing the educational benefits of football and other sports.’ This specific interest in football is not written into the job description for Teacher A, placing more attention on having an ‘understanding of the national curriculum requirements at key stage two and three, and the ability to use it in an IT setting’. The person specifications for jobs in both Centres, focused on ‘excellent interpersonal skills’ including the ability to ‘empathize.’ In the observation notes for the Teacher,

dated 24.11.11, Manager B stated: 'demonstrated confidence, approachability and enthusiasm with young people.'

However, the evidence reveals additional skills of staff are expected and through distribution roles are extended to enhance resourcefulness, identified as an ideal of DL (Oduro, 2004). For example, Manager A reflects:

Well, we have to be very resourceful because we have minimal resources as such a small team. I think we are digging deep into our personal talents and interests base really and make sure we can make the most of that at all times.

This is backed up in the comments of others. For example, Volunteer A said he used his 'data handling' skills acquired from his Psychology degree, and having 'play-worker skills,' Mentor B explained she could 'step-in' if the coach is late and was often asked to communicate with parents as she had a 'really good telephone voice.' Teacher B's fresh knowledge about the curriculum and assessments in school are described by Manager B as an 'asset' and Volunteer B talked about using Gujarati with non-English speaking students and parents. Manager B spoke of peer mentors assuming leadership in the Summer Dance Week saying: 'Before the course it was totally un-thought of...They very much felt empowered'. The tension in the mediations from *tools* caused by a shortage of specialist staff in the activity system has effectively been resolved to become an opportunity for progression for individuals, recognized as an ideal in DL (Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2001, p.24). However, the evidence shows that the loss of PfS funding influenced what skills were used. For example, Manager B described how they reduced the breadth of their provision:

We grew it out of control I think five years ago, with so many sessions in place and coaches weren't very reliable, it all kind of fell apart and I think (name omitted of chief exec) ...totally changed the whole staffing here...we got burnt because actually it was all about outputs and we couldn't get them so I think from that (name omitted) just thought lets stick to the small things that we are good at that we can do.

This comment suggests that too many skills were being asked of staff that was actually making them weaker as an organisation.

There is evidence that particular human qualities were expected in the Centres. The job descriptions focused on motivation in Centre A. For example, the Lead Mentor for Centre A was expected to 'to act as a positive role model for other staff and volunteers,' the Teacher and Mentor A to be 'self-motivating and capable of motivating others' and Manager A must have 'experience' of 'leading and motivating.' She said if staff were not 'moving in the right direction' it was her responsibility to 'initiate the thinking process to move onwards.' She felt she could use her personality and persuasion to inspire followers to change expectations and motivate them towards common goals, as discussed in the literature (Edwards *et al.*, 2013), rejecting the belief that human values are un-teachable (Lovat and Toomey, 2009). In Centre B job descriptions focused more on development. For example, Manager B is expected to 'seek opportunities that add to skills and knowledge, to respond positively to opportunities that arise and support others' learning.' She claims her motivation is altruistic in seeing the kids 'do what they do and come out the other side.'

Motivation is demonstrated through attitude. For example, in the staff handbook for Centre A individuals are expected to represent the Council who funds them 'positively and enthusiastically.' In the observation field notes for the Saturday School session at Centre B, dated 14.07.12, researcher reflections recorded 'positive attitude to activity' and in its 2010 annual evaluation report, p.1, Centre B strives to:

...foster a positive, enriching atmosphere and learning environment to aid learning and independent study, work with pupils to develop a positive attitude to school life and the concept of life-long learning and develop self-respect and respect for others.

However, comparing the Brochures it is apparent that positivity is more valued by the Manager in Centre A than Centre B. For example, within the first 200 words, Centre A uses eleven positive descriptions including 'world-class,' 'raising educational standards,' 'advanced quality,' 'inspire,' 'improve,' 'exciting,' 'innovative,' 'wow-factor,' 'aspirations,' 'potential,' 'individually tailored,' while Centre B uses three 'exciting,' 'excellent,' 'motivate.' Centre A continues to use more positive words throughout other communicative documents, such as the staff handbook and media articles, and kite mark applications. It is possible that being aware of the 'excellence' expected for the Quality in Study Support

(QiSS) kite mark process has generated this positive language. However, it could be argued that these continual positive messages influences staff's own attitudes (Petty and Brinol, 2010).

Being the 'best you can be' to reach potential and 'rise up in the organisation' was deemed important by both Managers. In the interview with Manager A she stated:

Basically what we are all about is trying to make you be the best you can be and make the most of it and that includes leadership as well, be the best leader you can be, you know reach as high as you possibly can and that's what we are after as well. I mean whether it comes to learning or personal achievement or targets or becoming a better leader and I mean any future employment or study will need strong leadership skills and that's why we sort of tried to build those skills into all the different activities. Whether its warm-up games or problem solving activities or working as a team, all of those different activities you need good leadership skills.

Both Managers also talked about staff needing 'passion' for 'this kind of job' and not being 'money orientated.' Manager A stated in her interview:

You couldn't do this kind of job and work in this way if you weren't passionate about what you are doing and also it's very important that the ethos we have is shared in the team as well.

Manager A also mentions this at another point in the interview by saying:

There are always ups and downs but you know there has to be a willingness on all parts to work on those things (referring to relationships) and because we are working towards the same goal and are passionate about what we are here to do.

Teacher B described how 'determination', was the focus of the Inspire/Aspire project and encouraged staff alongside students to continue to 'persevere' and 'work at our best.' Manager B stated that she and others had to be 'strong-willed', especially if Volunteers wanted a 'good' and 'concrete' job after volunteering and Mentor B described herself as 'hardworking' with 'perseverance' and Teacher B described 'playing to the best of your abilities.'

Resolving a potential disruption in the mediations between the subject and the object, Manager A said: 'there are always ups and downs,' but due to working towards the same goal there is a 'willingness.'

Manager B admitted she is 'a perfectionist' and tends to 'take on staff that are a bit like that as well,' aligning the *objects* for *subjects* across the interactive activity systems. She talked admiringly about a previous colleague who left for a much higher position in another Club and Manager A also thought highly of personal ambition, concluding that 'life is a competition' even within leadership. She recounted expressions of a mentor at interview to 'shadow the head teacher as soon as possible' and claimed that working in the Centre would 'empower them to do much better in their working life.' Manager B, said:

Sometimes you just have to go for it, you know, take a step forward and run things on your own...That does take courage. She claimed: You have to be strong willed to stay here...be adaptable and flexible...You've got to really fly by the seat of your pants kind of thing.

She is referring to the additional tensions influencing leadership distribution due to the unpredictable nature of the football clubs and funding, discussed in 5.3.2.

Data from both Centres illuminates the importance of recognition and reward as found in DL (Oduro, 2004, p.1). In relation to the activity systems, the mediations between the tools (in this case accreditation, rewards and acknowledgement at celebration events), the subject (staff) and the object (goals) were smooth and reciprocal. In the data they are frequently recorded. For example, the 'ASDAN award scheme celebration event' is logged in Manager B's Appraisal Report for the Month April 2012, and in the annual Evaluation Report for 2010/11, p.3, it states: 'All pupils get a chance to share their work with their family and friends and teachers at a celebration event.' In the Time Tables and Lesson Plans overview for Centre A's courses it lists the 'Youth Achievement Award' under learning outcomes. All staff are given equality by participation in praising the pupils. It is recorded in the field notes for the After School PfS session at Centre B, dated 04.06.12, that Mentors write comments on 'several areas' of the pupil diaries and Mentor gives 'player of the day' to one of the pupils. In the PfS After School session at Centre A, dated

02.07.12, it states 'Teacher reminds pupils of certificates and prize-giving in school and large Olympic souvenir booklets.'

It is apparent that individual's skills are valued in the Centres, especially as an additional resource. That might be due to the small size of the teams. In particular Teacher B needed a wide range of skills that included expertise with information technology and sport. However, it appears the tools such as accreditation schemes in Centre B and QiSS kite marks in Centre A supported positive attitudes needed in the distribution of leadership. For QiSS staff are expected to have high standards and be committed and passionate about supporting others to achieve (QiSS, 2014).

5.4.2 Interactions between staff

This thesis is interested in discussing the sociological aspects, the personalities of the individuals behind the roles and responsibilities, recognising that human action exists as a social collective (Rollinson, 2008, p.5). The analysis of data in the interactive activity systems (see Appendix W), revealed how the staff interacted with each other and what their relationships looked like when leadership was distributed. Mentor A said:

I think we do it on a daily basis without realising we are influencing each other, the teacher has a very different way of working he is very structured to the point where he needs everything planned in detail, whereas myself, I generally tend to go with the lesson and play it by ear. So I think when we work together the lesson plan changes and becomes a bit more flexible, but at the same time having the structure that the teacher puts in is needed as well helps deliver the plan more effectively. I think me and the manager are quite similar in terms of approach.

It appears that Mentor A is aware of there being a leadership approach that is different from others in staff team and that he follows the same sort of ideology as his Manager's.

Although Teacher B describes the Centre staff being 'capable individually,' with their own abilities to work successfully alone, she believed they make a 'very effective team' when working collaboratively, as found in DL (Hallinger and Heck, 2010). Mentor A states:

Generally I think we are quite a creative team and we have a strong team working environment so it's making sure we are working together, also we are always told that we should take our own initiative and there isn't any kind of I am higher than you kind of thing, everyone is equal and equally treated, regardless of whether you are a volunteer, mentor, we are all expected to chip in whenever we can, our own opinions and ideas, and we are always constantly learning and reflecting as a team rather than individually.

Manager B echoes this by saying:

Across the whole team it's a feeling like everyone's got equal chips...I hope that all of my teachers and leaders will say that I will listen to what they say and you know I will change things.

Teacher A believed with a smaller team you get to 'know each other's patterns a lot more' and Teacher B felt acknowledging strengths and weaknesses was 'instinctive' and there was 'intuition' between her and other staff, suggesting the DL ideal of working 'in-concert' (Gronn, 2002, p.431). However, she also stated that it was also her responsibility that 'we work together as a team throughout the whole session, backing one another up.' Evidence of this was observed in the PfS After School session at Centre B, dated 04.06.12. It is recorded in the researcher's field notes: 'Mentor puts in suggestion anything below 60% needs to be attempted again.' The initiative shown by Mentor B, to get involved in leading the activity, suggests this has become a social norm and part of the culture woven into the fabric of the Centre.

Both Centres demonstrated that there was an openness between staff in addition to the expected influence from formal leaders to followers. Manager A illustrated this by stating:

If we aren't moving in the right direction I bring it to everyone's attention and then initiate the thinking process on how we can resolve that issue and move onwards.

She is implying that she believes she can influence the rest of the staff to reflect on their practice and work together to improve it.

Managers were equally influenced by Teachers, Mentors and Volunteers. Analysis of the data illustrated where the mediations between *subjects* in the interactive activity systems were reciprocal as found in DL (Harris, 2003). For example, Teacher A explained:

When I am in a session with the volunteer coordinator we quite often work together, I would probably then have a talk through things, if I needed advice or anything I would constantly negotiate things with him such as if he is leading particular parts of the course of anything he felt was lacking in what we are going to do, yeah I would just take advice from him perhaps.

This is described in DL as making use of ‘people wisdom’ (Oduro, 2004, p.1). Teacher A explained that it was often the person most suited to the role that ‘finds themselves in the spot’, such as handing ‘over the reins’ to the Mentor due to his film making skills being ‘superior’. He described how the Mentor and Manager were often exchanging the leadership of the Peer Mentoring course, implying flexible roles. Mentor A felt his skills ‘rubbed off’ on others and by being in a smaller team Teacher A claimed they ‘pick things up from each other...more fluidly.’ Volunteer A agreed, claiming he had picked up ‘public speaking skills.’ There is less evidence of this in Centre B, but Mentor B described how they ‘bounce off each other’s ideas’ and referred to a new mentor with a ‘clever maths technique,’ conceding ‘no one’s got it all.’

In the interactive activity system contradictions between subjects and objects have been resolved, resulting in good practice. For example, Manager B recounted how she challenged her seniors about staff’s lack of motivation. She said:

I said to (name omitted of deputy chief executive) people feel so unmotivated here we need to do something about it and then he went on a management training course, and said we need to do a staff curriculum review, we are going to do operational meetings.

However, potential contradictions in the interactive activity systems between the elements of *rules*, *subject* and *object*, were observed in the Saturday School session, dated 14.07.12, when Peer Mentors were not involved. In the field notes the researcher reflected:

Encouraging motivation...to offer leadership is difficult, especially when individual has custom of waiting for instruction, does not have skills to apply to the situation, needs to have 'bite size' (experiences)...Opportunities for distributed leadership take a lot of planning and forward thinking to support individuals to be successful with the leadership... If not supportive...too many decisions...for individual'.

Providing further evidence of the need for a structure to distribute leadership effectively, Manager B explained:

'I just sat there yesterday for two hours with this problem and that problem, IT etc. etc...I said my God, I feel suicidal now, I set it up all wrong. People tend to pull me out, whereas really they need to go to their manager for the courses they do first. Where we have come from the bottom, I tend to be worst, I just jump when people say I want to do it there and then, to get it sorted.'

This situation Manager B describes, reveals that she has not set up a structure to support the leadership of others. The flow of influence is coming from one direction, being that of the followers, making the leadership distribution *chaotically* aligned, discussed further in 6.3.1. This evidence illustrates that taking on leadership is not always natural for individuals and some would prefer to stay within their comfort zone, preferring to be subordinate (Guirdham, 2002, p.423). For example, Volunteer A discussed how he 'felt confident' to give his opinion but also unqualified and 'overstepping the mark' at the same time. He described having divergent role expectations (Robbins, Judge and Millet, 2014), being a follower and leader at the same time was 'an odd feeling to have.'

There was evidence that staff as individuals influenced leadership distribution. For example, Manager A stated 'each individual member of the team really does bring in their personality' so it's not so 'formal.' Teacher B believed it to be a more 'humane way of learning...it makes our students feel that they cannot be wrong, I think they feel safe'. Data showed individual approaches to tasks were welcomed. For example, Teacher A said:

In a human and personality way I suppose we have different ways of working and sometimes it's a really good thing to obviously open it up and say I am considering this for this session and what do you think and

someone else might be less final product driven than me and might pay more consideration to time and other factors in the session.

Teacher B felt, in being the ‘polar opposite,’ her personality is complementary to her Manager’s. She explained she had an ‘almost OCD compulsion to be organised and tidy,’ whereas the Manager loved being ‘surrounded’ by resources that are no longer relevant. She explained that the Centre was ‘a lot less cluttered than it was and I am striving to keep it that way.’ She felt she was just ‘tightening up’. Similarly in Centre A, the Manager also felt she had a different personality to Teacher A, saying: ‘I am quite impulsive and easily excited, but also very creative, I love coming up with new ideas.’ She claimed:

I need the influence of our Centre Teacher, who’s much more methodical and practical and can challenge my initial idea and sort of like make sure if it’s really concrete or not. So I think each individual member of the team really does bring in their personality and strengths to the table.

Here the *subjects* in the activity systems have mediated reciprocally with the *rules*, meaning staff carried out their roles in the way that suited them. However, in Centre B there is evidence of disruptions in mediations between *subjects*. Mentor B, indicated that she and the teacher haven’t ‘clicked’ or ‘bonded’ after a year of working together, preventing the flattening of hierarchy discussed in DL (Chapman and West-Burnham, 2010, p.21). She felt over time they would be more familiar with each other’s personalities, claiming ‘human qualities’ make it easier. Volunteer A claimed he was influenced ‘subconsciously’ by two different Managers at the Centre. Through the previous Manager he ‘learnt to work’ in a way that ‘was very much target-driven’ while the present Manager is ‘far more relaxed’ and he missed the ‘injection of energy.’ This could imply that he is frustrated with the current Manager’s different leadership approach resulting from a belief that he holds about her personality (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007).

The data suggests staff relationships are important and individuals from both Centres described ‘friendships’ with colleagues. Mentor B recounted an occasion when a pupil had referred to her Manager as her ‘friend’ and was surprised when corrected. Teacher B echoed this in saying:

The adults in the room come over as friends as well as being friendly towards the children, yeah I would hope the way that we model the relationships, they don't see me giving directions and orders to the mentors, it's very much can you do such as such, not I want to do. It's probably not very overt to the children. They probably aren't aware there is a hierarchy in here, I would hope it comes across that the children see the staff as friends of each other.

In his administration role, Volunteer A discussed having 'friendly interaction' with staff that was 'symbiotic' and neutral as he was not telling anyone what to do. However, while being 'approachable' both Managers preferred to use the term 'professional relationships.' Manager B stated:

It's got to be professional, because you are working with professionals but it's being friendly I suppose, approachable, you don't need to be best friends with anyone you know just professional.

However, both Managers likened working in the Centres as a 'family' due to the many years together and familiarity with staff's spouses and partners. In both Centres positivity develops from staff's behaviour (Fielder, 1957). Volunteer A said:

We want to create an atmosphere where it's really positive and happy and friendly and upbeat and we are all really practical so we all get stuck in, I think that comes from the Manager as well.

He is reflecting on the influence he feels the Manager has in terms of developing values in the Centre.

Teacher B felt staff 'modelled' positive relationships for the pupils, by using good manners and not by 'directions and orders,' echoing Hawkes' (2010) idea that thinking values influences performing them. As a professional role model (Swaffield, 2008) Volunteer A stated: 'If you can't work as part of a team I don't think you can lead a team.'

It is apparent from these findings that teamwork and the skills of individuals are valued in both Centres. Staff are open to accept constructive criticism and suggestions about different ways of working. However, approaches to leadership distribution from both Managers isn't being clearly understood by

themselves or their teams and staff are responding to their own needs to be able to achieve the Centres' goals. Despite this lack of structure and direction staff are willing to accommodate their differences and have developed a positive working environment where they enjoy working together.

5.4.3 The role of trust in the distribution of leadership

Through the interactive activity systems used in the analysis of data (see example in Appendix W), it is evident that shared decisions in the Centres developed a higher level of trust and morale. This was found to be an important factor in the success of DL (Davies and Davies, 2006, p.34). While Manager A does not refer to the autonomy or restraint she may feel from the Local Authority, possibly because the interviewer was also her Line-manager, Manager B claimed her Line-manager had been 'brilliant' from the start by giving her, as a 'lowly teacher,' 'power' and 'ownership', encouraging independency to develop self-belief (MacBeath, 1991, p.152). Manager B sat in a main football club office in a different area of the stadium from the classroom and she stated that she 'doesn't go down and check' and Teacher B acknowledged 'I have a certain amount of autonomy in my own classroom.' However, in the PfS After School session observed, dated 04.06.12, it is evident this autonomy is not passed down:

Teacher sits at computer near the white board...Teacher waits and then calls the pupil over...Teacher asks Mentor for location of worksheets...Pupils call Teacher 'Miss'...Teacher asks male mentor to chase up 'dream team' work from one of the pupils...Teacher instructs Mentors to now start completing the pupils' evaluation.

The Teacher has created a formal environment, controlling from the front. However, the field notes for the observation of the Saturday School session at Centre B, dated 14.07.12, record 'teacher leaves again,' when passing leadership to Mentors to search for resources. This might mean support is needed due to poor preparation or that leadership distribution changes during weekend sessions.

Through the skills acquired during the accredited volunteer programme both Mentor and Volunteer A said they felt able to 'lead a warm-up game.' It is apparent that their lack of experience or potential mistakes had not created

interruptions in the mediations in the activity system and opportunities to lead had become valued social norms, increasing the morale found in DL (Woods and Gronn, 2009). Volunteer A explained when the formal leader is absent it helps 'whoever is left in the room to take on that leadership role.' He said:

I have been in sessions whereby the teacher starts it off and ends it but the whole middle bit is run completely by the learning mentors...quite a successful way of working because you are not only developing the children but the mentors as well.

It is apparent that staff are trusted to demonstrate leadership skills, an ideal of DL, although this might be an example of exploitation too.

Manager A claimed that first meetings with schools and partners often happened together as it was 'quite a big role going into school' and Volunteer A explained how he was trusted to go 'to a meeting full of...head teachers...to talk about the QiSS kite mark.' The volunteer programme including recruiting, training and inducting is all delegated to Teacher B, while Mentor A completes this with the 'help' of his Manager. Existing as a 'chain of support' he said volunteers are 'kind of supervised' by the Mentors but 'I also make sure the Volunteers are okay.' This reflects the concept within DL of sharing leadership to reduce follower dependence (Heifetz 1994). However, there was evidence at both Centres that the peer mentors did not understand what their role was. In the Saturday School session observed at Centre B, dated 14.07.12 peer mentors were recorded as 'sitting on the floor...losing motivation to participate,' whilst in the Summer School Fashion session observed at Centre A, dated 21.08.12, it was noted; 'peer mentor sits alone? Not involved.'

It is apparent from the findings that staff members appreciated the autonomy they were given in both Centres. While the data revealed that Teacher A preferred more control as found in *pragmatically* aligned distributions of leadership, to be discussed further in 6.3.2. He accepted that he could benefit from the skills of others and trusted them. The findings from Centre A demonstrate that trust was more easily acquired due to all staff working in the same space and Manager A used this as an advantage and was more willing for staff to 'learn on the job' as safety nets were all around. Centre B staff did not work in the same space as their Manager but the delivery team did but

Teacher B was less trusting of her Mentors and Volunteers and felt the need to direct them more from the front. It was possible that coming straight from working in a school culture she was less able to share her control. However, there were also occasions in both Centres where trusting staff was not successful. For example, the Manager and Teachers trusted in the Peer Mentors to know how to take initiative and work with the other staff without giving them the structure and guidance they needed.

5.5 Building a common knowledge and understanding within the Centres

The fourth theme emerging from the data considers how the leadership distribution was developed by building a common knowledge and understanding within the Centres. As discussed earlier in 3.2.1, internalised or externalised knowledge are considered as artefacts or tools in the activity system and contribute to leadership distribution in many formats. For example they might be relayed to staff through language, in documents and books, with the help of practical objects such as white boards, pens and computers. They may also be contributed through intangible phenomena such as attitudes and behaviour. From my own knowledge of the interchange of resources between PfS Centres nationally, it is expected that many artefacts, such as volunteer programme documents held collective knowledge and went through a cycle of interpretation, amendment and sharing. Data revealed that knowledge and understanding was gained or lost in the Centres within two sub-themes of Quality assurance of delivery and Staff professional development.

5.5.1 Quality assurance of delivery in the Centres

There was evidence that both Centres used quality assurance to verify what was actually happening in the Centres inline with their expected outcomes. Data was analysed by focusing on all the elements in the activity system working together. For example, the elements of *rules* (policies and procedures), *object* (goals and outcomes) and *division of labour* (who carries what out when) were mediating with the elements of *subject* (staff), *tools* (evaluation forms and performance criteria) and *community* (needs and behaviour of those in and around the Centres). The Annual Review (2010) for Centre B, on page 2, stated that pupils, parents and teachers are given a questionnaire 'to evaluate' and are asked to provide 'views on the programme' on video at the celebration events.

Teachers are also asked to individually analyse 'any changes in the pupils who attended.' While appreciating that these publications are wishing to impress their audience, these statements are backed up in other documents, including Centre B's weekly staff review, dated 11.05.12, and 'evaluation' is recorded as a task in Manager B's appraisal report, dated 02.10.12. In minutes, dated 28.02.12, p.5, it is apparent that Centre A requested Steering Group members to give 'feedback on the Service Level Agreement' created to secure school commitment. Mentor A discussed feedback opportunities after every session and said they were 'all expected to chip in whenever we can our own opinions and ideas.' Manager A said these were to discuss 'what went well' and how to 'improve the next session' and claimed procedures for measuring the impact of programmes were 'integral to our learning process.' However no feedback sessions were apparent to the researcher, suggesting they did not happen frequently. This lack of communication might have meant opportunities for leadership to be distributed were missed.

Documents such as the monthly report for Centre B, dated 21.10.12 mentioned the use of initial assessments during recruitment to monitor staff weaknesses and it is apparent that staff are observed termly in Centre B to assess performance, as evidenced in Manager B's observation of the Teacher, dated 24.11.11. She assessed practical aspects of the session and added constructive feedback such as 'could ask for good examples of questions-open and closed' and 'love the fact you stopped to make sure they are on right track.' Comments, both motivating and constructive, are also found in the Manager B's appraisal report, dated 11.05.12, stating 'still to observe [name of staff member omitted]', suggesting this happens regularly. Although it is part of the tutor guidelines for the volunteer programme to 'observe mentor during session and complete assessment form', there are no indications in Centre A's data that formal observations were carried out. This was possibly because as staff worked in the same space this happened informally and Manager A could become involved in the activity as was seen in the sessions observed dated 02.07.12, and 21.08.12. She could easily enter the classroom from the office or watch through the glass patio doors unlike Manager B who sat in an office in a different area of the stadium.

After meeting the expectation of PfS to acquire the first level, Centre A continued with the QiSS recognition process to Advanced which required involving all in leadership such as a Steering Group. The use of 'peer mentors' as future leaders was noted in their minutes dated 28.02.12. Mentor A claimed they are 'constantly learning and reflecting as a team rather than individually,' making mediations between elements in the interactivity systems reciprocal, and it would seem even the first level of the QiSS kite mark had influenced self-evaluative processes in Centre B. Six out of twelve tasks listed in the volunteer programme of study run at both Centres, required an element of reflection suggesting the Centres wished to nurture this in their leadership culture. Volunteer A said:

You looked at yourself a lot... you'd reflect on what qualities you had and what you needed to develop...and learnt what works for you...what you need to improve on.

The programme's Tutor Guidelines back this up by expecting tutors to support the Volunteers to complete tasks such as 'encourage mentors to find their strengths/weaknesses.'

It is apparent in the findings that both Centres valued quality-assuring their activities but were not as thorough as they implied in documents and in evidence to the researcher. By not feeding back to each other about a session's strengths and weaknesses they were missing opportunities to plan for leadership distribution and share knowledge that helps to support it. Only Centre A was continuing with the QiSS kite mark, which demonstrated some benefits to the Centre's outcomes in relation to self-reflection. However, the evidence demonstrated that Centre B had a regular reporting structure where staff's performance could be discussed and needs identified for progression.

5.5.2 Staff professional development

Data shows that there are some similar ways that the Centres develop staff professionally. Records such as reports and diaries used in relation to pupil activity, charted the history of activity but were also used to mediate future action. For example, the field notes for the observation of an After School session at Centre B, dated 04.06.12, record 'all sit down with log books.' As Volunteer A explained, these were 'good at encouraging pupils to become good

leaders of their learning,' but it is apparent that through these the Teacher and Manager were able to monitor the quality of the communications between Mentor and pupil, to support staff development. The data, in Manager B's appraisal report dated 02.10.12, demonstrates staff expected 'briefings before every session' and in her observation report on Teacher B, dated 24.11.11, it notes 'use of board and verbal communication to brief staff.' This is reiterated by Mentor B, who explained this was their 'main system.' Teacher B said Volunteers and Mentors were briefed alongside the children in what she described as a 'quick chat.' She explained it is 'not a formal thing' or 'written down,' but 'works magnificently.' Field notes for the After School session at Centre B, dated 04.06.12, stated that 'instructions are given for the Dream Team exercise' and for the Summer School session observed at Centre A dated 21.08.12 and an 'overview of what activity has happened so far' was noted. However, other data contradicts this, such as Teacher B's monthly appraisal report, dated 03.05.12, commenting 'would prefer more time at start of session.' But it appears that by staff taking the initiative, the potential *contradictions* (disruptions) in the mediations between *subject* and *tool* in the interactive activity systems, are resolved. For example, in the PfS After School session at Centre B, dated 04.06.12, it is noted that the Mentor asked the Teacher 'for guidance on an activity' and Teacher B explained the Mentor would stay 'after or before a session to debrief' or would 'phone beforehand.' Mentor B backed up this lack of communication to her by stating that the information from the 'managers and the people that work in the office,' 'trickles down' to staff, suggesting she felt disengaged from management processes and alienated from power (Fink, 2010). In the analysis using activity systems these came to light as *contradictions* (interruptions) in the mediations between her as the *subject* and her commitment towards the Centre goals, the *object*, as found in DL (Gosling et al, 2009).

The data reveals that there is also a difference between what systems are in place in each Centre for the professional development of staff. Volunteer B claims meetings involving him are 'sparse' but says 'the people that work in the office, have meetings every week.' To meet Club expectations the Manager and Teacher B carry out face-to-face meetings that act like mini-appraisals described by Teacher B as 'monthly.' This formal procedure, involving ratings

given by both parties against job description related tasks, might create tensions in the mediations between *subjects* in the interactivity system, if not constructive. However, Teacher B said her comments are always 'pretty much on the same line' as Manager B's, believing they must both be 'happy.' Although these reporting exercises are potentially arbitrary and unnecessary, especially if there are negative reactions to performance measures, causing contradictions in the mediations that drive individuals rather than behaviour, they appear to be 'a good cocoon', as she explains, for Teacher B, giving her the confidence to know she can 'flag' up problems 'very quickly.' She describes her communication with the Manager as a 'wonderful cobweb of emails' that 'goes off' after every session, suggesting contradictions in the mediations have become opportunities. However, data shows us that while Centre A embraced QiSS as a form of quality assurance there appeared to be little in the way of a reporting or appraisal structure. No recent minutes were available to indicate if and when Manager A met formally with her LA Line-manager or for appraisals. It is possible that as the researcher was the Line-manager, many things were left unsaid and assumed to be understood. But the lack of other staff appraisals or reporting systems implied the practice was influenced by a lack of formality from the LA itself.

A 'bank of trained and experienced mentors' are generated through the volunteer programme to develop 'more supportive and economical structures,' as stated in the QiSS summaries for Centre A on p.3. Although potentially enhanced to gain a kite mark, other data testified to this and accredited training for new staff infiltrated all other areas of the macro-activity systems and grew leadership. Volunteer A spoke about the OCN requirement to design and lead an activity as 'one of the ways in which you became a leader.' The involvement of all staff in developing new curriculum is described in the QiSS summaries for Centre A, p.3, and the Steering group minutes, dated 28.02.12, record PfS Graduate sessions working as 'master classes' for new computer software. Manager B talked about a previous Teacher making schemes of work, but the current Teacher explained the Manager makes them and she 'tweaks' them, indicating that trust has lessened with a new member of staff (MacBeath *et al.*, 2007). The Manager's knowledge, as a *tool*, is informing her that a new teacher as a *subject* is not capable of writing the programme plan alone, creating

ruptures in the mediations and stifling opportunities for building skills. The larger reports are compiled by Manager B, but, the Volunteer explained he compiled them in Centre A 'in partnership with the Manager,' with her making the 'final checks and amendments,' and felt this was the 'first step on the ladder on a progression towards leadership.' Manager A claimed these opportunities were 'built in' to activities as she felt 'any future employment or study will need strong leadership skills.' She argued that trainee teachers felt 'learning new skills and how to lead others in such a supportive environment is invaluable,' described as 'non-judgmental' and one 'that allows risk taking', conducive to DL (Elmore, 2000).

While Manager B said 'doing this job has given me so many different paths to go in' and described the PfS professional development as 'innovative stuff,' she felt staff 'miss out' on training offered in mainstream education, despite delivering through alternative provision to the 'worst kids in the school.' These barriers in the mediations between the elements of the *community*, *tools* and *subjects* appear to have been overcome in Centre A by using partnership work to gain new skills and learn together during practice. For example, the Steering group minutes for Centre A, dated 28.02.12, listed 'Digging Deep' workshops looking at British Olympic Archives at the local university and Centre B offered more 'in-house' training such as Safeguarding, First Aid and CISCO, as recorded in the weekly staff review, dated 11.05.12. But as Manager B explained, the Btec (Business and Technology Education Council) tutor had been 'told as part of his job' he needed to complete the PETALS teaching course so it could be assumed that many opportunities were actually obligations.

It is apparent from the findings in both Centres that there are *tools* such as diaries, self-reflection and briefings to assess staff needs in both Centres. When these were not working well individuals demonstrated initiative to gain the information needed to carry out their role. But it is also apparent that there were marked differences between Centres in how they appraised staff. Centre B used a reporting system that allowed a two way conversation so staff could express their professional needs and carried out formal observations, whereas the close proximity of individuals working in the same space in Centre A meant staff needs could surface easily. Centre B had a variety of accredited courses

for staff to tap into whereas Centre A relied on staff developing their skills 'on the job'.

5.6 Perceptions about leadership distribution

The fifth and last theme that emerges from the data considers how the leadership distribution is affected by the perceptions of those working in and around the Centres. It is apparent that the demands and challenges of working as small teams in uncertain environments impacted on the staff. While both Centres continued to use the same PfS staff model for over 10 years, with one Manager, one Teacher, sessional Mentors and Volunteers, it appears that in each Centre staff perceive their roles differently in relation to how their roles and responsibilities are carried out. These are discussed below in the following sub-sections; Confusion in leadership approach and Staff willingness or compliance to accept leadership distribution.

5.6.1 Confusion in leadership approach

It is evident in both Centres that staff were confused about what leadership is. In the analysis of data using the activity systems, there are *contradictions* (tensions) between the elements of the *subject* (Manager), the *rules* (responsibility and accountability) and the *division of labour* (expected hierarchy). On page 4 of the QiSS kite mark summaries, written by the Manager for Centre A, it states:

...management of the (Centre) is a shared responsibility amongst all students and staff. This distribution of leadership ensures planning, review and the development that takes place is owned by all involved.

Although confusing management and leadership to be the same, this statement demonstrates an understanding of the ideology of Distributed Leadership (DL). The Manager of Centre B appeared to take a similar view, describing everyone as having 'equal chips,' but the language used by the Teacher and Mentors in Centre B pointed towards more of a shared leadership approach with staff contributing to leadership from within their own roles (Pearce, Manz and Sims, 2009). From looking at the actions of those taking on the distribution (Gunter, 2003) it was evident that sharing leadership wasn't always carried out with support. For example, it was noted in the session at Centre A observed, dated 21.08.12, that 'Peer mentor sits alone...not involved' and for Centre B, dated

14.07.12, 'two students not participating, sitting on the floor...not sure what their role is.'

Teacher B described the staff structure in the Centre as being a 'much smaller model' than in school but 'without specialist leaders,' and stated her Manager is 'above her' as the 'immediate boss and head of education' suggesting a leadership that was 'distant' from her both physically and strategically. Mentor B claimed it was her responsibility to 'settle the children so that the teacher can get on with the lesson...the main person leading the activity.' She claimed before she was 'told what to do' but now had leadership responsibility of a 'sub group' to 'enable the students to also lead in their own learning,' implying a 'leader-plus' model (Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009). This discrete isolated leadership (Carson *et al.*, 2007) was observed in the After School session at Centre B, dated 04.06.12, when the Mentors supported the students but the 'Teacher spent a lot of the time at her desk near the white board', possibly focusing on her needs rather than student learning as Gunter had described (2006, p.118). Five incidences were recorded when she 'instructs' or 'asks' mentors, suggesting that a social norm had developed for Mentors to wait for direction, indicating their lack of initiative or her lack of trust or empowerment, not conducive for interdependence in DL (Gronn, 2002, p.437).

Teacher A also expressed that he needed to feel in control. However, as discussed in 5.4.2, the *subject* mediated with other elements demonstrating he distributed leadership. This was observed in the After School session at Centre A, dated 02.07.12. The field notes describe Teacher A only providing direction at the beginning and end of the session and addressing staff and pupils as a team. He is recorded as leading one of the three groups, with Mentors leading the other two with an 'equal role alongside teacher in steering the groups, equal confidence, sense of knowledge and expertise,' described in DL as collaborative distribution (Spillane, 2006). As the researcher I could be criticised for wishing to find more distribution in Centre A than B due to my professional bias as its Line-manager. However, Manager B raised similar concerns and in her own monitoring observation of the session at Centre B, dated 24.11.12, she records 'Mentors not engaging-need prompting'. It is possible she is trying to encourage the Teacher to develop a more distributive approach.

Through the *community* element in the activity system it is apparent that both Centre Managers were adopting a distributed leadership approach, which is not fully defined or understood (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.287, Thorpe, Gold and Lawler, 2011, p.240). Data found for Centre A such as Mentor B writing reports and Volunteer A carrying out administration might be to spread the work-load (Currie and Lockett, 2011) and Manager B stated she is encouraged by her Managers to share her leadership with others to avoid over-reliance on her capability as a single leader (Heifetz, 1994). However, it was evident that the flexible structures caused confusions in the leadership such as 'coordinating staff and resources' being listed as a task in both the Monthly Report for Manager B and in Teacher B's job description. Teacher B claimed that 'outside of the classroom' her role is greater than the Manager's with 'more responsibility,' being the 'link-line' between schools while Manager B and Mentor B both said they were involved with 'key communication with parents' around a child's welfare. It is possible that Mentor B implied she was taking on more responsibility than the Teacher acknowledged or gave her recognition for.

In particular Manager A illustrates her confusion, describing herself as the 'face of the project' but also referring to 'sharing responsibilities,' and the 'direction towards achieving goals,' claiming 'it's a very democratic way of working together' and 'everyone has got an equal say.' However, she states: 'Obviously in the last instance I would make the final decision,' reflecting like others that distribution could simply be counterintuitive to the idea of leadership (O'Toole, Galbraith and Lawler, 2003, p. 251). Possibly due to the ECM-related programmes Manager A is concerned about her moral use of power (Bogotch and Shields, 2014, p.1). Her awareness of social justice may be telling her she should not be exerting her 'will over others' (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007, p.828). Manager A is almost apologetic about her authority over other staff and said 'I suppose I do line manage and supervise the teacher and the volunteer mentor coordinator,' demonstrating the lack of guidance in the DL literature regarding the need for top-down activity and line-management despite the accusations of 'nobody in charge' (Buchanan *et al.*, 2007).

It is apparent in the findings that if the leadership approach is not understood by a formal leader or clearly imparted to their staff team, the informal leaders and followers will find their own approaches and distribute leadership as their needs

require or to fit their own ideology. It is especially hard for these formal leaders to generate any sort of understanding while they grapple with a misleading term that perpetuates confusion and contradiction. That will be explored further in 7.3.

5.6.2 Staff willingness or compliance to accept leadership distribution

The data shows that individuals either demonstrated a willingness to accept distribution or were compliant to do so as discussed below. Some staff members were not constrained by how others might perceive a role or the outline of a job description and were willing to accept leadership distribution opportunities offered to them. For example, Volunteer A often carried out administration and explained he needed to influence and 'persuade people' to cover staff absence across roles. The field notes for the observation of Centre B's Saturday school, dated 14.07.02, recorded: 'Mentor reminds students they cannot copy design exactly,' demonstrating she felt assertive enough to contribute to the leadership of the activity. Manager B said they were lucky to have:

...the sort of atmosphere where we can challenge each other's views and push ourselves onto another level...I hope all my teachers and leaders...will say that I listen to what they say and...change things...it's the same with my seniors...I don't feel like I can't disagree with them.

She is talking about her intentions to continue the reflexive open relationships, she has with her managers, with the staff she leads.

By the use of language there is evidence in the QiSS kite mark Summaries for Centre A that Managers received training in relation to New Labour's agendas through the PfS initiative (DfCS, 2005). For example, on page 2 it says programmes are:

...a positive learning experience for young people supporting them to enjoy and achieve and make a positive contribution to society as stated by the Every Child Matters outcomes framework.

This reference illustrates a desire to inform the reader that Centre A has knowledge and understanding of current priorities to gain the kite mark. However, *contradictions* (interruptions) in the mediations across the interactivity activity systems demonstrate both Managers found it difficult to relay the

ideology of DL to other staff who were not always willing or compliant to take it on. As discussed above in 5.6.1, Teacher B found it difficult to relinquish control and, like Teacher A, it was possible she was concerned about responsibilities and accountability and did not want to work with power relations that were 'blurred, multiple, ambiguous and contradictory' (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.296). Teacher A referred to Manager A as having the 'strategic overview' whilst he had the 'course overview.' It was noted, in his interview he was 'apologetic' for stating he had a 'clear view' of how he wanted sessions as it was his 'responsibility to take on the leadership,' adding he only shared this when staff understood the 'essentials' of an activity first. As the researcher was his Manager's Line-manager, who he knew had an interest in the DL approach, he may have felt he was betraying a Centre vision. It was known from the researcher's prior professional knowledge of the initiative that teachers and Mentors had not attended PfS conferences or training and the data illuminated the Managers' difficulty in influencing other staff alone. As the Teachers had recently come out of working in school environments, with more hierarchy and formal bureaucracy (Hartley 2010b, p.281), it was possible they found it harder to accept flatter structures. However, the Managers may not have internalised ideals from DL (Vygotsky, 1987) or had enough conviction in their beliefs (Hawkes, 2013) to push them.

Data revealed when staff changed roles and responsibilities in the Centres it affected power, potentially causing interruptions in the mediations. For example, Mentor B gained confidence and skills when covering the lateness of coaches by sharing her Play-worker abilities, although this was not requested in her job description nor financially rewarded. It appeared that she was willing to support Centre B to achieve objectives (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977), flattered by the higher status she was given (Milgram, 1965). It is clear that identifying what behaviour is willingness out of pleasure or obedience and compliance and fear of losing a job is complex. While some responsibilities were very exact such as Mentors at both Centres taking the students back to school on the bus, many tasks listed in both Centres' job descriptions used undefined words such as 'assist' or 'help' which allowed for additional responsibilities to creep in. In particular the job descriptions for staff in Centre A, who were in effect employed by the LA, state as a final point, to 'carry out other duties that are in line with the

purpose and grade of the job as may be required from time to time.’ As public servants with salaries paid by the tax payer, they were part of a larger politically driven machine compared to the staff in Centre B employed by the Club’s charity and needed to follow *rules* and accept the direction of the leader as found in DL (Starratt, 2012).

However, Manager A said it’s was very much down to the ‘individual’ and it was important to assess how much staff want ‘to take on at any given time,’ meaning mediations had to be reciprocal between *subjects* in interactivity systems, impacting and changing the *rules* and *division of labour*. Teacher B believed she knew when staff were ‘not comfortable’ suggesting the most appropriate leadership approach was employed at different times in the Centres. But it is evident this caused resentment with staff carrying out work they were neither comfortable with nor paid for (Gunter, 2006). For example, Teacher B stated that her Manager ‘gets a lot out of me’ and was a ‘little bit out of her comfort zone’ when she had to teach 16-year-olds Maths and English, but got through it despite saying she ‘wouldn’t teach anyone bigger’ than her. In the ‘Guard of Honour’ activity at Centre B dated 14.07.12 It was observed by the researcher:

Teacher is getting frustrated...Teacher points out to the groups that she feels like she is doing the banner on her own...Teacher reminds students of pressure on her to complete banner...Teacher is getting ‘fractious’ as she says because students are sitting around.

Teacher B displayed stress and anxiety because she did not have the art skills needed. Although she complied for the greater good of the Centre to fulfil a psychological contract of good will (Robbins, Judge and Millet, 2014), one imagines she did not feel empowered by the experience and remained silent about the burden (Ritchie and Woods, 2007). Maintaining good relations actually caused tensions in interactivity systems when they became more important than resolving a problem (Aronson, 2002, p.304) and while Mentor A described the ‘happiness’ of the team by having ‘achieved targets’ and having the skills to do them’, Volunteer A felt his leadership had been ‘exploited’ as he had ambitions to be a Head Teacher.

It was apparent from the findings that staff were flexible and willing to accommodate the distribution of leadership offered to them for reasons of

professional development. But this willingness appeared to come from younger staff and volunteers who had ambition to progress to other jobs. On reflection it seemed, through a discussion in the interview, some of these staff began to recognise where their willingness had been exploited. However, due to the positive attitudes within the Centres and passion for supporting the pupils to achieve, staff were also compliant to accept the distribution of leadership, although this compliance was found to be from the older more experienced staff who perhaps had no ambition to progress to a more formal role.

5.7 Conclusion

Data was collected from interviews, observations and documentary analysis guided by the 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution' created for this thesis. By borrowing concepts from the DL literature and the structure of CHAT activity systems, the Lens analysed the mediations and contradictions present in the data and found themes emerging between the elements including Inspiration and aspirations, External influence, Internal influence, Building a common knowledge and Perceptions about leadership distribution.

Leadership distribution was influenced by the PfS Centres' three partners: the Government, the Clubs and the LA. The 'enriching environment' of the football clubs and other staff was inspiring to the participants and motivated them to want to engage in leadership, which was seen by most as an 'entitlement' and 'opportunity,' but not necessarily a realistic experience of work. Ideologies from Extended Schools and ECM agendas (DCSF, 2006) were still important to both Centres which continued to use high ratios of staff to pupils, allowing Volunteers to shadow first. However, after the funding cuts, Centre B moved away from the collaborative cultures found in the LA to be solely under the Club and followed tighter reporting systems. Centre A relied on kite marks and steering groups to quality assure. Both systems caused tensions in the distribution of leadership and the physical closeness of the Manager's office influenced how staff's performance was monitored. Staff appeared to consider personality as being relevant to leadership activity and in general most individuals' way of working appeared to complement or be accepted by their colleagues. Centre culture had been developed using explicit, implicit and non-deliberately learnt behaviours

such as positive attitudes, willingness to do your best, trust, team work, enthusiasm and respect.

The evidence revealed that leadership distribution was facilitated through a common knowledge using verbal and electronic communication, training, reports, diaries, programmes, appraisals, staff knowledge and skills, became tools for others. Centres used similar systems such as the volunteer programme but the data revealed there were more opportunities to lead in Centre A, possibly because they worked in the same space where safety nets were near. At Centre B formal structures were supportive, but left gaps if there was not any flexibility, causing disruptions in the mediations, while the structures at Centre A were possibly too informal leaving contradictions in the mediations affecting leadership distribution. Both Centres reflected a confusion about how to empower but demonstrated attempts to maintain the equality expected of DL. Staff in Centre A were apologetic about using power over others while in Centre B there was a vagueness as to who responsibilities belonged to. PfS training had developed an ideology of DL in the Managers' outlook to leadership, but neither could successfully impart this to their teams and concerns of silent exploitation were beginning to arise.

6 Chapter Six - Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This Chapter will now discuss the findings presented in Chapter five in relation to the review of the literature. To provide a clearer argument this thesis has chosen to frame the discussion below in relation to the research questions posed. The conclusions to the discussion will then be presented in the following Chapter. The research questions are:

1. What does leadership distribution of extended learning activities look like in Playing for Success centres?
2. How and why might leadership be distributed in these Centres?
3. What implications can be drawn about the efficacy of distributing leadership in future extended learning activities?

Before taking a deeper look into how and why leadership might be distributed in the Centres it is worth making a direct comparison between the Centres.

6.2 What does leadership distribution look like in the Centres?

In response to the first research question this Chapter discusses the key similarities and differences between the Centres.

6.2.1 Similarities

Most of the similarities in Centre A and Centre B resulted in the Centres being established under the umbrella of the Playing for Success (PfS) Initiative in 1997. Both were housed in football clubs in economically deprived areas with the aim of supporting schools to raise attainment. Both began life as three-way partnership projects between the Club, the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) and the Local Authority (LA). After funding was cut they moved under their strongest partner. As prescribed by the initiative (PfS, 2011), the Centres consisted of one teaching space with technological equipment for around 15 pupils, and had a Manager, Teacher, Mentors and Volunteers delivering a range of programmes after school, at weekends and in the holidays. The inspirational environment of the football club provided the main theme for courses and staff felt this played a big role in raising aspirations both for pupils and for themselves. Centres made extensive use of the resources available to

them, using other spaces in the Stadium and Club employees as vocational inspiration.

Due to the Centres' involvement in national projects, the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games became a central theme in the build-up to and during those events. Both Centres were flexible and resolved any contradictions in the mediations by adapting their curriculum to benefit from the opportunity.

Alongside the pupils, many staff gained unique, 'once in a life time' experiences such as meeting Olympians and Paralympians and attending live Games events and ceremonies. These rewards helped to motivate and make staff more willing to take on leadership. Although this developed their skills to make them more able, staff in both Centres were challenged to lead in areas of expertise they didn't have, creating stress and frustration. While 'values' such as friendship, determination, equality and respect were the main focus of the national 2012 programmes, staff at both Centres insisted they existed prior to the Games and were already integrated. However, they enhanced and strengthened the importance of values: a key objective of the PfS training both Managers had received and the Quality in Study Support (QiSS) kite mark they had attained.

Under New Labour, the Centres grew alongside the Every Child Matters (2003) and Extended Schools (2005) agendas. They assumed their ethos of developing social justice and social capital and, the findings suggest, a leadership distribution culture. This was evident in tools used to encourage pupils and staff to express their views through self-reflection and diaries.

Although staff interviewed at both Centres talked about feedback at the end of sessions, the researcher could find no evidence this took place and it was apparent that while communication systems were valued by Managers they were not always carried out by the Teachers. The leadership approach of the Managers was not being fully accepted by the Teachers. Involvement in evaluation meant staff had opportunities to gain ownership in the leadership of the Centres and the volunteer programmes run at both Centres helped less experienced staff to learn to lead. Staff in both Centres stressed the need to have passion, aspirations, opportunities to share expertise and willingness to participate in leadership opportunities. However, in both Centres staff felt there were elements of exploitation in taking on extra leadership. Staff at both Centres highlighted an atmosphere that was different from school and despite a

cut in funding the high ratio of staff to pupils continued, allowing personalised learning. There was some evidence that Centre staff were able to challenge their seniors and reciprocal and reflexive relationships were accepted and encouraged. However, both Managers had confused ideas and lacked clarity about the leadership approach they were employing despite training from PfS and so had difficulty in relaying what they thought the ideals of leadership distribution were. Whether as a coincidence or a reaction to this, both teachers resisted distributing their leadership and felt 'out of control' if they weren't leading everything unlike the Managers, who described themselves as 'creative' and 'organic.' Nonetheless, Managers and Teachers from both Centres referred to this as a complementary relationship although it is possible that they were trying to place a positive emphasis on their comments due to my professional relationship to them.

In summary the similarities found between the Centres tell us that exciting locations, resources and curriculum can motivate individuals to participate in leadership distribution. However, as analysed through the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution, it is apparent that the role of the Manager, needs to *mediate* with the other elements and *subjects* (staff members) in the interactive activity systems to achieve the Centre's *object* (goals). The Managers show how tools can share information and develop social norms to support leadership distribution although it is evident that this facilitation can be limited by the personal objectives of others.

6.2.2 Differences

Continuing to respond to the first research question this Chapter will now discuss the differences found between the Centres. Despite being established to fulfil the same ambitions of raising pupil attainment the Centres achieved this ambition in different ways. While delivering from the football club, Centre A was now running as part of a LA service, Centre B on the other hand operated from within the Community Trust of the football club. This meant they were guided by potentially different policies, which influenced their outcomes. Centre A was expected to support pupils to develop skills to help them be resilient in the 'challenges of adult life' (LA, CYPS plan, 2011-2014). Centre B was expected to deliver sport activity within the framework of PfS to develop 'positive attitudes' and 'health and fitness' (Club's website, accessed, 12.03.12) and also oversaw

coaches leading non-PfS related programmes. Centre B staff are required to have ICT skills, out of school hours experience, diverse communities awareness and interest and knowledge of how to use sport and football to raise attainment. Centre A staff are required to have relevant qualifications and skills, be enthusiastic, positive and motivating. Apart from the volunteer programme, staff are trained in different ways: staff at Centre B are expected to develop within a structure and attend formal courses linked to accreditation. Manager B explained:

We've got kids that came to us 10 years ago for a small session, took part, volunteered years later and came back, got their coaching with us, got their qualifications and now they are coming into a full time job so you know what I mean there's kind of a journey there, which is the core to our success really.

In contrast staff at Centre A swap roles to gain 'on the job' experience and develop skills. All staff at Centre A, including the LA Line-manager, have worked there for many years, while at Centre B the Teacher, Mentor and Volunteer are fairly new.

Despite the classroom in both Centres being set up for fifteen pupils the space is quite different. Centre A uses patio doors down one end to create an office. Mentors and Volunteers can wander in and out and leave coats there and the Manager can view all of the activity. Centre B consists of only one space with the Manager sitting with her seniors on a different floor. There is a rigorous reporting system at Centre B with weekly and monthly documents, meetings, a grading system and regular observations. Centre A does not have this but has continued beyond PfS's expectation to gain the first level of the QiSS kite mark revalidating at Advanced level twice and uses a steering group of stake holders to quality assure the provision. Centre B did not revalidate at the first level of QiSS or maintain regular steering group meetings, suggesting less involvement of staff in decision-making. Only Teacher A was somewhat adverse to the DL approach, with the Mentor and Volunteer appearing to support the Manager's lead, whereas in Centre B all staff have resisted or shown limited awareness of DL despite Manager B's attempts to develop this approach.

In summary these differences tell us that a physical staff structure can be interpreted differently by leaders and followers. A working space can have a significant impact on how leadership opportunities arise. Despite Teacher A's reluctance, by sharing a space Manager A was able to influence the willingness of Mentors and Volunteers to accept leadership distribution. The interactive activity systems, used in the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution, illustrated that continuous reciprocal relations and roles could be more relaxed as information was free-flowing in one environment. By developing skills 'on the job' staff in Centre A could be trusted to take the initiative while at Centre B many were still waiting for direction. In Centre B, it was not possible to develop the same continuous sharing of information as the Manager was working in a different space and relationships were more formalised, however the structure for 1:1 feedback, something that didn't take place in Centre A, gave individuals a chance to voice their needs.

The similarities and differences in the findings between the Centres in this study are illustrated using 'meso' activity systems (see Appendix U). As explained in Chapter Three, 'Micro' activity systems consider the mediations between the elements in relation to just one individual and their role (see Appendix V), 'Macro' activity systems consider the mediations between the elements in relation to the Centre and the wider organisations it sits and works within (see Appendix T), such as the football club, local authority and national PfS initiative. 'Meso' activity systems and interactivity systems consider the mediations between the elements in relation to the Centre as a whole. The following section will consider how elements of distribution might be aligned to understand how and why the distribution of leadership happens.

6.3 How and why might leadership be distributed in the Centres?

In response to the second research question, focus turns to how the mediations and contradictions found in the Centres' activity systems are supporting or preventing opportunities within Alignments of Distribution including *formal*, *pragmatic*, *organic* and *chaotic*, introduced in section 2.6.2. Previous Distributed Leadership (DL) studies (Spillane et al., 2001, MacBeath, 2004, Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009), focused on questions about DL to answer 'what,' 'where' and 'who'. This thesis takes the investigation further by asking the

questions about DL to answer ‘how’ and ‘why’ it happens. Using the Theoretical Lens of Leadership Distribution, created for this thesis it was possible to identify how smooth and reciprocal mediations supported leadership distribution, as found in *formal*, *pragmatic* or *organic* alignments of distribution but showed they might easily become *chaotic* alignments if contradictions arose in the mediations which remained unresolved (see figure. 6-1 below).

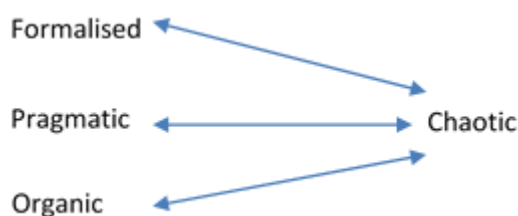


Figure 6-1 Alignments of Distribution

In Appendix E it is possible to see where alignments were demonstrated in each Centre. However, the researcher accepts these are her interpretations and she may have missed others due to the limitations of time and resources in the methodology. The discussion below looks at each alignment of distribution in turn and considers when they work well. It also considers what happens when they become *chaotic* and leadership distribution falls into crisis. Formal and informal leaders might need to work together to resolve an unanticipated problem or when individuals work independently, possibly in competition, with divergent aims.

6.3.1 Formal alignments of distribution in the Centres

As explained in Chapter Three, *formal* alignments of distribution can involve the pre-planned designation of responsibilities to formal and informal roles that develop leadership skills but may not necessarily be negotiated and could possibly be exploitative. For example, the findings showed us there were structures in both Centres that created *formal* alignments of distribution (MacBeath, 2004), which could be described as ‘planful’ (Leithwood, Mascal and Strauss, 2009). This was most evident in the volunteer programme and when Mentors led sub-groups in the sessions and escorted pupils home on the bus without the Teacher or Manager. It enabled staff as followers to take on leadership, become less dependent as they progressed through roles and

supported leadership succession (Fink, 2010). Prospectuses, reports and volunteer programme tutor guides attempted to foster a positive ethos, equality and respect *formally*. Opportunities to lead generated trust and high morale, recognised as key to DL (Davies and Davies, 2006), and staff in both Centres expressed the importance of values and the feeling that everyone was in it together, supporting each other through personal strengths.

By using the tool of the QiSS kite mark process, the distributed leadership in Centre A followed a *formal* strategic approach, making staff involvement in leadership a systematic and collective process (Leithwood, Mascal and Strauss, 2009) of critical reflection towards improvement. Staff were trusted to liaise with schools, write reports and attend steering group meetings, empowering them and developing commitment, evidenced by the longevity of staff in the Centre. This raised morale and self-worth. Centre B distributed leadership with a *formal* oversight approach using reporting systems, appraisals and training. This offered professional development and enhanced capacity and the staff team as a resource. Teacher B treated these as regular personalised times set aside for her needs and it is possible that staff could use this as an opportunity to discuss how they were contributing to leadership in the Centre. But there is little evidence of the Mentors or Volunteers contributing to the direction of Centre B through the same process and these contradictions were possibly barriers to a shared vision (Burke, Fiore and Salas, 2003). Despite Manager A advocating the ideals of DL, she had conceded to Teacher A's desire to have full control of the curriculum. His unwillingness to distribute was mirrored by Teacher A, possibly due to their recent work in the hierarchical and bureaucratic environment of schools (MacBeath, 2004). It is apparent that both Teachers had divergent objectives and wished to fulfil some personal need by not distributing leadership. By not asking for or accepting support, the mediations were not reciprocal, preventing the development of team ethos and skills and taking the leadership distribution towards a *chaotic* alignment. The structures in Centre B appeared too *formalised*, and opportunities to involve staff were missed. The mediations in the activity systems were not reflexive and the lack of flexibility in roles prevented staff skills and experience developing to support the leadership, causing contradictions that could lead to *chaotic* alignments. For example Mentor B needed to take the initiative to find out the

content of the following week's activity but may have felt alienated from power due to the lack of information given to her (Currie and Lockett, 2011).

Having chosen to work at the Centres, individuals accepted leadership would be *formally* distributed to them. In Centre A leadership opportunities were seen as rewards and promotion and some staff talked about this as though they were flattered to see their skills needed, feeling important and valuable. However, while leadership opportunities were shared with Volunteer A by the Manager, he felt uncomfortable and 'over-stepping the mark' in contributing to decisions, leading to *chaotic* alignments. In the job descriptions, there were some ambiguous tasks such as 'support the Manager,' that could be open-ended. The researcher's findings illustrated that both Manager B and Teacher B believed they had responsibility for liaising with schools whereas in fact Mentor B felt she actually did this task. It was evident that there was potential for contradictions in the mediations when staff changed role, for example in the progression from Volunteer to Mentor where an individual's perceptions of the new role and their consequent attitude to other staff might be harder for others to accept. This could lead to the lack of cohesiveness, competition and jealousy found in a *chaotic* alignment. Although no evidence was found to support his concerns, Volunteer A felt he was 'not the most liked Centre admin' in Centre A due to his new role in arranging the staff timetable.

It was apparent that formal alignments of leadership were created to follow the guidelines and expectations of the organisations the Centres sat within and the PfS initiative they were part of. Although useful to have structure and an understanding of why leadership was distributed, too much structure meant systems were not flexible to adapt to change and respond to individual needs.

6.3.2 Pragmatic alignments of distribution in the Centres

As explained in Chapter Three, *pragmatic* alignments of distribution can be leadership delegated through necessity in an ad hoc fashion, arising by default, or when formal or informal leaders, either individually or collectively, take on responsibility or make spontaneous collaborations. The researcher's findings showed that leadership became a task for 'multiple actors' (Hargreaves, 2007). Teams were small and for pragmatic reasons both Centres needed to build strength and enhance resourcefulness by using staff skills (Oduro, 2004). Good practice had resulted from the constraints of small teams in both Centres. The

staff needed to share more expertise to support each other when funding cuts challenged Centres to be more creative with resources and they made use of the Stadium and the Club's employees. Mentor A led a technical computer aspect of a session to support Teacher A, who had little knowledge in this area. Centre B appeared to make more use of these skills to cover staff absence. For example Mentor B used her play-worker experience when coaches were late. High ratios of staff to pupils ensured less experienced staff could shadow more experienced ones. Centre A encouraged the training of staff 'on the job,' alongside more experienced colleagues. From comparing its activity system with Centre B's it was evident there were more reciprocal mediations between the elements, most likely due to the higher number of collaborated activities (Oduro, 2004, p.14).

However, both Centres moved towards *chaotic* or anarchic (Gronn, 2002) alignments of distribution when staff felt additional leadership roles and responsibilities had not been negotiated with them to spread the workload (Currie and Lockett, 2011). Silenced in the process of accepting (Ritchie and Woods, 2007, p.4) and motivated by altruism (Aronson, 2002) and passion for the work, Teacher B accepted teaching older children, even though she felt uncomfortable doing it. Individuals who were easily influenced appeared to accept distribution more easily (Stiff, 1994). For example, even though she did not receive the credit for parent liaison, Mentor B took on telephone duties as she was told she had a 'good voice.' Despite Volunteer A feeling exploited due to his ambitions to become a Head Teacher, the positive ethos and the potential benefit of gaining experience had prevented distribution slipping into an unresolvable *chaotic* alignment. Communication through evaluation, training, reports and diaries was used in both Centres to develop a common knowledge. Centre B took this further by employing reporting structures to share information that supported the leadership. But this failed when the communication systems relied on broke down such as when briefings stopped happening and Mentor B needed to find out the content of the next session herself by calling the teacher beforehand.

It was apparent that pragmatic alignments of distribution emerged from the demands of delivering a varied programme that needed to meet several different agendas and policies with a small team. However, it was important that

staff understood how and why leadership distribution was happening and took an active role in planning it.

6.3.3 Organic alignments of distribution in the Centres

As explained in Chapter Three organic alignments of distribution can be leadership without formalization, individuals taking the initiative spontaneously with no clear demarcation between leaders and followers. It can be positive if individuals work collaboratively, but not necessarily. The staff in the Centres not only shared knowledge about leadership responsibilities but shared behaviour and attitudes, *organically* aligned through social and cultural norms (Robbins, Judge and Millet, 2014). Being in exciting venues, attracted staff to work in the Centres and inspired them to reach their potential alongside the pupils and there was a genuine passion and interest in the work. A desire to engage and achieve encouraged the willingness to participate in leadership distribution, which was especially evident in the Summer Schools at each Centre, when the staff were able to contribute to a more spontaneous curriculum, as found in DL (Leithwood, Mascal and Strauss, 2009). The data showed Mentors and Volunteers at Centre A developed initiative and demonstrated an intuitive way of working (Gronn, 2002) that could be spontaneous. However, this willingness needed to be coupled with ability to be 'ready' (Hersey and Banchard, 1977, p.161) to prevent *chaotically* aligned distribution. In both Centres, Peer Mentors were seen to be confused as to what role they played in the sessions and needed more leadership skills, experience and direction. The theme of the Olympics and Paralympics had challenged staff to adopt different skills. For example, Teacher B was expected to lead an art-based activity for the welcoming ceremony, for which she had less ability and confidence, but the exciting opportunity for pupils and staff prevented it from becoming *chaotic*.

Verbal descriptions of structures in both Centres and the behaviour observed, illustrated that staff emphasised the importance of equality and 'team' work. Despite funding cuts both Centres continued to use PfS endorsed Social Emotional Aspects of Learning programmes that developed empathy and employed a high ratio of staff per pupil to maintain personalised learning. The familiarity of long-serving staff enabled trust and opportunities for collaboration. This was more evident in Centre A where *organically* aligned distribution was attributed to stronger friendship groups (Aronson, 2002) and an enjoyment of

being together (Dion, 2000). Staff had learnt to lead through shadowing more experienced colleagues and 'on the job' training, and working so closely together in one physical space had developed a more inclusive, flatter organization (Currie and Lockett, 2011). With safety nets closer to hand, the thoroughfare from the office to the classroom in Centre A encouraged all staff to exchange knowledge freely and developed an equalising power between roles. However, working in front of each other might have led to *chaotic* alignments of distribution if a sense of autonomy had been lost, developing contradictions in reciprocal mediations (Woods and Gronn, 2009). It might also have led to a lack of *formal* appraisals and observations, if emotional complications made professional relationships hard to maintain (Aronson, 2002). From her position as a Line-manager the researcher found this difficult to back up with data. But Volunteer A expressed his need for more drive and direction from his Manager.

While perceived equity at Centre A could prevent resentment and intentions from Centre A staff to leave the group (Robbins, Judge and Millet, 2014, p.225), working in a different space from her team meant Manager B had less opportunity to develop *organic* alignments to nurture leadership skills or 'fill the gaps' when staff changed. On the other hand the higher turnover of Mentors and Volunteers at Centre B could be an indication that nurturing skills through *formal* and *pragmatic* aligned distribution had supported career progression and emotional distance gave more opportunity for honesty and constructive feedback (Oduro, 2004, p.14).

Managers in both Centres were more directly involved with PfS's Critical Friends (PfS, 2011) and were the only staff who attended the PfS training that encouraged sharing ownership and empowering staff. They described themselves as being very *organic* and working flexibly with their staff. They were more relaxed and experimental, whereas the Teachers from both Centres desired a tighter organization, ensuring that everyone was acting in their role, applying *formally* aligned distribution. Illustrating anarchic misalignment (Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009), sessional Mentors, only worked at the Centres for a few hours each week meaning it was easier to employ *pragmatic* alignments of distribution than the ideals of DL, as they had less knowledge and experience and needed more direction. Manager A resolved this by encouraging Mentors and Volunteers to take on leadership in other areas aside

from the sessions such as writing reports, coordinating volunteers and general administration alongside her in the office. Her influence is evident in the way the Mentor and Volunteer in Centre A used the same language as her. Manager B found this more difficult and admitted she had less trust in Teacher B to write the curriculum due to less time with her, though it is possible she had less conviction in her own beliefs as a Manager and had not internalised the ideals of DL (Engeström, 1999), creating confusion in the leadership approach.

It was apparent that organic alignments of distribution were more dependent on the willingness or compliance of staff to be able to take on a responsibility with little warning. It also needed a staff structure that wasn't too rigid and could be flexible to spontaneous leadership activity. While staff voiced their appreciation of the equality given to them as a member of the team, when Centre systems were not working or there was insufficient direction from the Manager, individuals had to find their own systems which could be divergent, achieving personal aims and not necessarily supportive to achieving the overall Centre outcomes. An activity may grow through several stages and fit different alignments as it develops. It would therefore be tempting to think of it as a continuum, from *formal* through *pragmatic* and *organic* to *chaotic*, as suggested by Hargreaves and Fink (2006). But the findings of this study demonstrated there needed to be a balance with different alignments existing alongside each other, as discussed below.

6.4 Implications that can be drawn about the efficacy of distributing leadership in future Extended Learning Activities

In response to the third research question the final section of this Chapter identifies key messages that have developed from the literature, data and analysis and discussion in the first sections. By mapping the data against alignment headings in the previous Chapter, it was possible to glean an insight into what models could be effective for other organisations delivering Extended Learning Activities (ELAs). This Chapter now looks at the key messages that could be considered in relation to the efficacy of distributing leadership in ELAs. These are informed by what the DL literature, this study's findings and analysis and the discussion above have told us. It has concluded that they could be thought of as four key messages relating to 1 positive ethos and values, 2

readiness (willingness and ability), 3 building knowledge and communication and 4 supportive structures and are explained in more detail below. Together they make up a new concept and term: 'Universal Leadership Culture.' This will be presented in 7.4 in the next Chapter and illustrated in fig. 7-1.

6.4.1 Positive ethos and values

The first key message in relation to the efficacy of distributing leadership in ELAs tells us creating a positive place where people want to work is important. It was apparent that working in an inspiring and 'exciting atmosphere', created by the high profile venues and involvement in the 2012 Games, helped to develop positive social norms and staff inspired each other. Staff and children were regularly coming into contact with celebrity athletes and saw themselves featured in national media, an opportunity harder to replicate elsewhere in Extended Learning activity. However, shadowing and role modelling found in the distribution of leadership appeared to be a particularly effective way of inspiring others to want to develop skills regardless of the subject matter. It also tells us that the facilitation of leadership distribution is dependent on the ethos and values of those in formal leadership positions and their followers. In the Centres this was developed by the external and internal influences on the activity in the Centres. Working under a Government which placed emphasis on social justice and democracy and using the 2012 Games Values encouraged a positive learning environment. Teacher B described everyone's time in the Centre as a 'journey we all go on without a wrong answer,' suggesting a leadership that accepted difference, individuality and allowed for mistakes, motivating staff to participate (Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009). Staff believed there wasn't an 'attitude' that roles were 'higher' than one another and leadership was seen in Centre A to be an 'opportunity and an entitlement.' However, there was a concern that the empowerment of working in the Centre could be misleading and needed to be reflected on in relation to other work environments that might not offer the same opportunities.

6.4.2 Readiness (willingness and ability)

The second key message in relation to the efficacy of distributing leadership in ELAs tells us that in order for staff to participate in leadership distribution they need to be willing to be involved and have the ability to take on the responsibilities offered, what Hersey and Banchard, (1977, p.161) call

‘readiness’ as explained previously in 2.3. The findings suggest four main reasons why individuals might be willing to participate in leadership:

- To help support pupils and each other to raise attainment. There was evidence of this willingness in relation to developing aspirations to achieve presented in 5.2.2 and in relation to the interactions between staff in 5.4.2.
- To work in an inspiring environment and raise their own aspirations. There was evidence of this willingness in relation to the inspiring environment presented in 5.2.1.
- To gain professional development, skills, knowledge and experience. There was evidence of this willingness in relation to staff professional development presented in 5.2.2 and in relation to the passion staff expressed in 5.5.4.
- To acquire status or financial reward. There was evidence of this willingness in relation to many of the findings where staff talked about appreciating their skills being valued or the progress they had made, such as a previous volunteer at Centre A coming to speak to the children about his achievements presented in 5.2.2.

Some patterns of distribution could be more effective than others in engaging staff in leadership (Leithwood and Riehl, 2007), but as seen from this list only the first is altruistic. Many individuals needed to gain something from the experience such as feeling valued through sharing expertise, being involved in decision-making, offered training or becoming trusted as a result of the volunteer programme, which prepared staff for leadership activity by role modelling, shadowing and reflecting. High ratios of staff to pupils allowed ‘on the job training’ to develop into cultural and social norms, involving empathy, respect and confidence, although it is apparent that despite using the same material a Centre might deliver this differently. The desire of staff to participate might not be acknowledged or could be exploited. For example Teacher B accepted being ‘uncomfortable’ teaching older children for the good of the Centre and to please her Manager. This investigation showed that while an individual placed in a formal leadership position might have a passion for this ‘kind of job,’ others might choose to work in ELAs to fit around other

commitments such as jobs, studying, childcare, or other perks, like working in a football stadium.

‘Readiness’, includes not only followers but leaders and their Line-managers. While recognising the specialised expertise of colleagues it was therefore important to be willing to nurture ‘capacity in others’ as ‘being the expert can be very disabling for others and exhausting for yourself’ (Brighouse, 2007. p.30). While staff in the Centres were happy their personalities could contribute to the leadership activity and many felt the different personalities helped to balance their own and created reciprocal social norms that encouraged the distribution of leadership, others felt frustrated at a change in energy levels with a different Manager. Where staff might not wish to share their leadership they might still contribute to distribution in other ways. The teachers in both Centres provided *formality* to counteract the Manager’s *organic* alignments of distribution, resolving contradictions that arose in the mediations and in some ways strengthening the leadership and creating natural group cohesiveness (Robbins, Judge and Millet, 2014).

While the ‘will and skill’ in leadership preparation were found to be significant to longitudinal impact (DfE, 2010), the DL literature (Gronn, 2002; MacBeath, 2004; Spillane, 2006; Leithwood, Mascal and Strauss, 2009) only talks about providing opportunities for all to lead and the emerging view has been that anyone can lead (Simkins, 2005, p.12). However, this does not discuss the possibility of an individual being unsuitable or unfit to be a leader, possibly because this harks back to rejected heroic leadership and personality theories. This lack of discussion in the literature implies there is an expectation that people have equal ability to lead, which it could be argued needs further exploration. By choosing to work in Centre A and B, Volunteers had accepted the idea of progression through the accredited programme. But it should be acknowledged that while some may not have recognised their own potential, others might not have wished to take on any other opportunities or responsibilities after becoming a Mentor, which is their choice unless the requirements of the job expect more from them. Teacher A for instance expressed an interest in leading the curriculum in order to remain in control, but

did not want to stray from this area of expertise to continue working more directly with the students.

6.4.3 Building knowledge and communication

The third key message in relation to the efficacy of distributing leadership in ELAs stresses that the role of sharing information and learning from each other was vital for the distribution of leadership. It has been argued (Marshall and Olivia, 2006; Blackmore, 2013) that the power of formal leaders is strengthened when there is unequal knowledge. Teacher A talked of the small space working well for them where skills were just 'picked up from each other.' The need to be multi-skilled in small Centres had humbled staff into recognising their weaknesses and appreciating the strengths of one another. As Mentor B put it: 'No-one's got it all.' In general, leadership is said to involve vision, seeing the big picture and strategically communicating to others to mobilise them in a desired direction (Blackmore, 2013, p.141). The researcher's findings demonstrate that staff benefited from having an awareness of how and why Managers were trying to achieve their vision.

However, as a result of Managers A and B's own confusion about their leadership approaches this information was diluted. While both Managers attempted to involve everyone in evaluation and self-reflection they did not necessarily relay back the knowledge learnt and act on it as a team. The appraisals and reporting structures used by Centre B developed knowledge but it did not appear to be disseminated. Both Centres benefited from a Critical Friend, who helped them develop a vision by looking from the outside in, but this relationship often only involved the Managers. Manager A claimed knowledge exchange was 'integral' to their learning processes but opportunities for it such as feedback after sessions did not necessarily happen. Both Centres networked internally and externally with schools through diaries and reports, but this did not necessarily extend to sharing visions and directions. Mentor B said she had to be creative to gain information and expressed detachment from senior leadership.

6.4.4 Supportive structures

The fourth key message in relation to the efficacy of distributing leadership in ELAs tells us that while we know closed and rigid structures do not support leadership distribution, neither do structures that are too free. It highlights the need for a balance. While the *formal* alignment of distribution in Centre B was not always flexible enough to respond to change or create opportunities for staff to grow, the *organic* aligned distribution in Centre A would have benefited from more structure to support its direction. A balance of structure and flexibility can provide strategic direction for creative and organic distribution, otherwise leadership is too broadly diffused across groups with little responsibility and becomes 'dissipated' in a 'washing machine' where decisions go round and round remaining unresolved and disowned (Gosling, Bolden and Petrov, 2009, p.42). *Organic* distribution seemed to work better in partnership with another such as *formal*, or *pragmatic* distribution creating a culture that was both 'loose and tight' (Weick, 1976). The 'tightness' of the goals, or structure enabled Centre B to be 'looser' about how its goals were to be attained. Teacher B actually implied she was 'micro-managing' Manager B to gain more organisation around her and it is possible both Managers' lack of direction was unrealistic and drove both Teachers to develop their own structures.

In the early days PfS Centres were an example of the Government's attempts to de-centralise power to Extended Learning services, giving them greater control and freedom over implementation (Hopkins, 1995, p.268), and staff expressed the freedom and justification they had to stray from the policies and procedures of any of the three partners they were accountable to. After the funding cuts, they were more accountable to and had formal direction from only one organisation. While Managers may have lost a more balanced direction (Davis and Harless, 1996) they may have felt more comfortable. Under the Club, essentially a business, Centre B had taken on a greater sense of hierarchy reflected in the language of the Teacher and Mentor who referred to the 'boss' and individual 'in charge.' As most of the time the Manager worked with her seniors in another part of the building, the Teacher actually dominated the Centre space with her need to feel in control and created less opportunities for DL. Under the LA, however, Centre A was encouraged to continue with collaborative cultures for inter-agency working and flatter structures (Gronn, 2002), quality-assured steering groups and kite marks. Even so, some staff felt

uncomfortable with this lack of structure and wanted more decisions made for them. It was apparent that both structures might carry different sorts of tensions. If too fluid, their vision and direction could be compromised (Gronn, 2000). However, working in the unpredictable environments of football clubs' the structures of both Centres needed to be flexible and resilient to support staff to work through adversity, and this continually moving structure, reacting as the situation changes, illustrates why DL has been so hard to define (Gosling, Bolden and Petrov, 2009).

Maintaining the PfS egalitarian culture while acknowledging differences in roles made power relations 'blurred' (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.296). Manager A in particular struggled, as is evident from the lack of appraisals and reporting systems. Educational practitioners need to consider the balance of power changing when staff move across roles, demanding transitions to be smooth. However, as Cranston (2013) states the question remains as to whose power this really is? In particular there is little said about responsibility and autonomy in the DL literature (Elmore, 2004; Moller, 2006; Bolden, Petrov and Gosling, 2009) and to what extent it is the responsibility of the individual to take leadership when offered it or when commanded to lead changes facilitating the autonomy of others. It may be that 'being part of a team' took away the autonomy from staff, especially when they might be used to closing the door to their classroom as they did in schools (Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009, p.177). Identifying the tactics of delegation found in management are not the same as developing a strategy associated with leadership, and can limit the participation of staff (Hartley, 2010b).

There is a vague crossing point between sharing a management task and actually distributing leadership (Fitzsimons, James and Denyer, 2011). Is it possible to share responsibility without accountability? The distinction between the responsibility of the Mentors escorting pupils home on the bus, as stated in the job description, and the Manager's 'ultimate accountability' for ensuring the Mentor is trained and will escort pupils following health and safety guidelines, is particularly problematic, especially in an educational setting where the duty of care over children is involved and can lead to potentially *chaotic* alignments. For example, the Mentor might have important decisions to make if a parent is late

in collecting a child from a bus stop, not expressed in interviews. The kite mark process and a Critical Friend had supported Centre A to develop DL approaches although they were not totally embraced by all. Manager A said she felt 'it was her job to initiate the thinking process to move onwards' if her team were going in the wrong direction. This coaching or guiding suggests leadership distribution might only be developed in a positive and strong establishment and not in a dysfunctional team without effective structures in place.

6.5 Conclusion

By looking at the key similarities and differences of leadership distribution it was possible to gain a picture of what the activity looked like in both Centres. The findings, analysis and discussion suggest that exciting locations, resources and curriculum can motivate individuals to participate in leadership distribution and tools to share information can develop social norms, but the role of the Manager as facilitator is key. Staff structures can be interpreted differently by leaders and followers especially in relation to their use of workspace. Centre A had more leadership opportunities with information flowing freely and the Manager physically present or looking out from her office through patio doors, unlike Centre B where systems were more formalised with the Manager in another office with her seniors. The findings told us that by developing skills 'on the job' staff in Centre A could be trusted to take the initiative while at Centre B many were still waiting for direction.

To look deeper into how and why leadership distribution might occur, the researcher discussed the contradictions in mediations found in activity systems in relation to Alignments of Distribution. It was possible to identify occasions when *formalised*, *pragmatic* or *organic* alignments could slide into becoming *chaotic* if contradictions were not resolved. Both Centres relied on systems to help them create *formal* alignments of distribution like the volunteer programme illustrated in Appendix E. But arguably there was more evidence of Centre B distributing leadership through *pragmatic* alignments when staff stepped in to cover sickness or absence while Centre A relied on *organic* alignments to grow staff skills into new roles. The researcher came to the conclusion there was a need for a balance between *formal* and *organic* or *pragmatic* and *organic* alignments of distribution to prevent leadership becoming *chaotic*.

While the distribution of leadership in organisations has become attractive to educational practitioners, scholars and policy makers there are still unresolved issues about how it should be implemented. To consider what implications could be drawn about the efficacy of using the Distributed Leadership approach for future ELAs, key messages in this thesis were brought together from the literature, findings, analysis and previous discussion. This thesis suggests that these can act as a guide for any educational organisation delivering ELAs, which wishes to benefit from distributing the leadership. They include the need to have a positive ethos and values, a sound understanding of 'readiness' (willingness and ability), a firm commitment to knowledge-building and communication, and having supportive structures. To resolve the confusions in current practice this thesis has highlighted a new approach to practising and thinking about leadership distribution presented in the next and final Chapter.

7 Chapter Seven - Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This Chapter brings together the threads of concepts and research data generated by this investigation. It will begin by making conclusions from the discussion of the findings and analysis presented in Chapter Six. However, throughout this thesis the challenges and contradictions surrounding leadership distribution and in particular the term 'Distributed Leadership' (DL) have been recognised. While acknowledging the ideals of DL are beneficial to an organisation, this Chapter proposes a new concept to practising and thinking about leadership distribution termed 'Universal Leadership Culture.'

This thesis has combined concepts from the Distributed Leadership Perspective (Spillane, 2006) with the analytical structure of Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) (Engeström, 1987) to create a 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution.' It aims to examine how leadership distribution is actioned through the contributions of all staff, their tools, rules, community, division of labour and goals. It focuses on the mediations and contradictions present in the Centres' activity systems that supported, disrupted or developed leadership distribution to understand the conditions where it might thrive (Harris, 2008, p.183). This thesis analysed the findings in relation to 'Alignments of Distribution' developed from concepts found in the DL literature (Gronn, 2002; MacBeath, 2004; Spillane, 2006; Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009; Hargreaves and Fink, 2006), as set out in 2.6.2. This Chapter suggests the particular theoretical framework used in the thesis could become a useful tool for those wishing to learn about and distribute their leadership.

The limitations of the research are considered including the theoretical framework, the methods and the researcher's reflections on being an 'insider.' The contributions this thesis has made to the body of work about leadership distribution in Extended Learning Activities (ELAs) in England will be discussed. It will end with the researcher's final conclusions.

7.2 Conclusions and significance of the findings

This thesis set out to investigate leadership distribution in Extended Learning Activities (ELAs) in two London based Playing for Success (PfS) Centres delivering Olympic and Paralympic related education programmes in 2012. Both

were housed by football clubs but Centre A was supported by its Local Authority LA while Centre B the football clubs Community Trust. ELAs are often vocationally linked and are thought to develop new skills or positive attitudes that can 'switch on' children and young people into learning. As a New Labour Government (1997 – 2010) initiative, PfS Centres worked alongside Extended Schools and Every Child Matters agendas (2005) to help support schools to raise attainment. This thesis acknowledged that although Distributed Leadership (DL) was the dominant term for all leadership that was distributed it was still confusing and misleading. Nevertheless, after reviewing the literature, studying the NfER Evaluations for PfS (Sharp *et al.*, 2003, 2007) and drawing on her own professional experience of managing PfS Centres from 2002-2006, the researcher began this thesis with the assumption that the Centres studied aimed for the ideals of DL set out in 2.5.

The data was discussed in relation to each of the research questions in Chapter Six and the conclusions are presented below:

Research Question One asked: What does leadership distribution of extended learning activities look like in Playing for Success centres? To answer this question Centres were directly compared. Both Centres were established in inspiring sporting venues with a positive ethos to raise standards and support each other through collaborative relationships. Expert at capitalising on the theme of sports to engage learners they became very involved with the 2012 Games. The 'once in a life time' opportunities helped to make staff willing to participate in leadership. However, contrary to the researcher's expectations both Managers were creative and organic in their outlook while the Teachers were more perfectionist and controlling in their roles, possibly in reaction to the Managers' leadership approach. While staff in both Centres described their relationship as complementary, data showed that the Managers were trying to promote the DL philosophy but the Teachers were not supporting it. Despite PfS training, the Managers' attempts appeared further weakened by their own lack of clarity. Unlike in Centre B the staff in Centre A, including the Manager, worked in the same space making it easier for her to encourage participation in leadership. There were more practical 'hands-on' opportunities for leadership distribution in Centre A than Centre B, possibly due to the closeness of support networks as a result of working in the same space and cross-fertilisation of

roles. But while there was more support through formal structures and accredited courses in Centre B the staff demonstrated less initiative to take on leadership opportunities. The ideology of DL was encouraged by Centre A's Line-manager in the LA (the researcher) and through tools such as the Quality in Study Support kite mark that Centre B no longer had interest in. Despite this staff in both Centres described situations when they felt exploited or uncomfortable with the leadership distributed to them.

Research Question Two asked: How and why might leadership be distributed in these Centres? To answer this the researcher considered the mediations and contradictions between the elements in the Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) activity systems, explained in 3.2, and related them to *formal*, *pragmatic*, *organic* or *chaotic* alignments. Her conclusions are presented below.

Formal alignments of distribution were created through the agendas, policies and procedures of the host partners and the Government's wider agenda to achieve social justice and social capital. The volunteer programme and structure of Mentors leading sub-teams in both Centres built in leadership opportunities and developed independence, trust and confidence that nurtured a positive ethos. In Centre A the QiSS kite mark process involved staff in a systematic and collective process of critical reflection towards improvement. In Centre B the appraisals and reporting systems allowed individuals to discuss their concerns contributing to leadership and accredited training was offered providing professional development and enhancing capacity. *Formal* alignments of distribution became *chaotic* when structures were too formal and roles lacked flexibility. There were fewer opportunities to involve others in leadership, losing the potential to develop skills to support the leadership. *Chaotic* alignments arose when staff were uncomfortable, their job descriptions were ambiguous or they felt exploited.

Pragmatic alignments of distribution were found when both Centres found it necessary to build strength and enhance resourcefulness by using staff expertise especially when staff were absent. This in turn shared good practice and developed teamwork. In particular the high ratios of staff to pupils in both Centres allowed this to happen through shadowing which developed equality and respect. Centre A's open plan classroom and office allowed for roles to overlap with the Mentor and Volunteers creating opportunities to train 'on the

job'. Liaising directly with Schools, speaking to heads, writing reports and attending steering group meetings was empowering, raised morale, self-worth and developed commitment. Different forms of communication were found to develop a common knowledge such as evaluation, training, reports and diaries occurred in both Centres. In particular Centre B used reporting structures to share information that supported the leadership. *Chaotic* distribution developed when the structures and communication systems relied on broke down.

Pragmatic alignments of distribution also became *chaotic* when staff felt additional leadership and responsibilities had not been negotiated with them, they might be known to have ambitions or they did not have the relevant skills.

Organic alignments of distribution were developed in both Centres through implicit and explicit symbols. These were non-deliberately learnt but had developed social and cultural norms in the leadership activity, mostly positive through passion and aspiration. The exciting venues offered many role models in and around sport and staff inspired each other. As places of learning, both Centres attracted individuals who wished to engage and achieve, creating a willingness to participate in leadership. Intuitive ways of working supporting one another's strengths and weaknesses allowed distribution to be spontaneous and enjoyment of working together created a friendly atmosphere supporting collaborative leadership. In Centre A the long-standing familiarity with one another had developed trust enhanced by the open classroom where safety nets were close at hand and roles overlapped. *Organic* alignments of distribution became chaotic when staff were confused about what responsibilities they had and needed more leadership skills, experience and direction. Chaotic alignments began to develop when staff expressed a lack of drive from management or when the Manager was working at a distance from the Centre so had less influence over activity. However, when staff worked too closely, professional relationships were harder to maintain in Centre A and the emotional distance in Centre B allowed honest and constructive feedback that supported quality assurance. *Organic* alignments of distribution became *chaotic* when the leadership approach was confused and had not been facilitated successfully, leading to distrust and divergent objectives. In an *organic* environment staff promotions were harder for others to accept, which potentially led to jealousy.

Research Question Three asked: What implications can be drawn about the efficacy of distributing leadership in future extended learning activities?

Conclusions from the discussion in Chapter Six emerged in four key messages relating to: Positive ethos and values, Readiness (willingness and ability), Building knowledge and communication, and Supportive structures. They are presented below.

The first key message stresses the importance of creating a positive place where people want to work, achieved in these Centres by the exciting high profile football venues and the inspiration from others to achieve. The power that comes with responsibility and accountability is inevitable despite attempts to flatten hierarchies. Those in formal leadership roles need to guide the distribution of leadership taking place to ensure there is a good ethos and positive values that will nurture supportive attitudes and behaviour where distribution is respected and not exploited. This is particularly crucial in relation to trust, honesty and in the open reflection needed about performance and personal feelings. Leadership should be distributed in relation to Centre outcomes to ensure it relates to its activity and pupil learning, not to just tick a box.

The second key message underlines that for a Centre to benefit from the distribution of leadership there needs to be an awareness of all staff's 'readiness'. This is a combination of their 'ability' to participate in leadership, developed through shadowing and leading small parts, and 'willingness' ranging from altruism to personal motivations such as financial, professional experience, qualifications and status. The skills, attitudes and personalities of those in informal leadership positions need to be considered alongside that of those in formal positions who distribute their leadership and both must be willing to have reciprocal relationships. Despite being 'ready' some individuals may find it uncomfortable to be involved in leadership and may need more structure in the distribution than others. An individual should be able to 'opt out' of taking on additional leadership if not required to by the job description.

The third key message highlights how building knowledge through good communication systems supports staff to get involved in the leadership of the Centre, particularly through tools such as kite mark recognitions, accredited programmes or Critical Friendship. As Baron (2007, p.2) claimed it is possible

that the role and ideology of critical friendship had started from the 'inside of their identity as an educator,' and had developed to 'last a lifetime,' shaping the distribution of leadership in the Centres. Emphasizing the importance of ethos and self-reflection, both of the tools encouraged the distribution of leadership to take place the data demonstrated that how and where communication happens is important. For example Centre A developed effective systems because they worked in an open workspace that meant activity and dialogue was constantly interactive. Centre B developed formal reporting cycles where time was given to discuss issues individually. However, if there is confusion about what the chosen approach is then communication systems will break down creating confusion in the distribution of leadership. All staff should be able to discuss distribution openly and be aware of the process. The kite mark and PfS training may have influenced Managers' leadership approaches in the Centres studied but neither could successfully impart this to their teams.

The fourth key message points out that there needs to be a balance in the structuring of distributing leadership. Relating back to the conclusions to Question Two, it is possible to see that alignments of distribution are appropriate at different times and to prevent alignments becoming *chaotic* there needs to be flexibility, especially for a small team, as found in the Centres, where the absence of one person is more significant. If too rigid and formal there is no room for flexibility and creativity, if too organic and loose divergent aims and objectives may develop or staff might feel frustrated for exploited. The discussion of the findings suggests that *formal* and *pragmatic* alignments applied alone fit more into the philosophy of Shared Leadership, made up of collaborative social processes involving those who share formal leadership roles (Hallinger and Heck, 2010). To meet the ideals of DL, leadership distribution needs to be more *organically* aligned and exist alongside *formal* or *pragmatic* alignments to create the clear holistic vision. Through *organic* alignments of distribution it is easier to involve those who do not have a formally designated role in leadership. They then have the potential to stretch the cognition over both human actors and aspects of the context they are in to develop 'concertive action' (Gronn, 2002) and develop a social system where context, processes and emotional elements can affect relational dynamics (Edwards *et al.*, 2013, p.6).

7.3 The confusion in leadership distribution definitions

'Distributed Leadership' (DL) has become a popular term to describe the reality that leadership is very rarely the monopoly or responsibility of just one person and leadership can be dispersed, coordinated or designated but may also emerge through collective or collaborative activity, developing out of social agreements or a social process. But, as a result of my review of the literature, findings and analysis and discussion I agree with Thorpe, Gold and Lawler (2011, p.240), that the term 'Distributed Leadership' (DL) is contradictory and difficult to define. The variety of forms found within one educational establishment alone (MacBeath, 2009) implies there is no blueprint. Gronn (2002), MacBeath (2004) and Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss (2009) have contributed to this confusion by using the term in a very loose and imprecise way, dancing up and down a continuum from delegated duties handed out without negotiation to leadership that shares decisions and vision. There have been a few attempts to address the failings of the term, for example Gronn's (2009) concept of a 'leadership architecture,' but this still creates a hierarchical structure with a top and bottom.

This thesis argues that put together the words 'distributed' and 'leadership' are misleading and confusing in relation to what DL aims to promote, such as democracy and social justice. The word 'distributed' implies there is a 'distributor,' an overall person in power creating 'a pattern of social relations structured not for education but for domination' Allix (2000, p.18). Coupled with 'leadership', 'distributed' is counter-intuitive, leaving power relations 'blurred, multiple, ambiguous and contradictory' (Currie and Lockett, 2011, p.296). The literature does not resolve to what extent the 'distributor' should apply power to ensure the participation of others, or to what extent it is the responsibility of the follower to engage. The word 'leadership' is steeped in connotations about power and inequality (Bacon, 2011) and particularly ambiguous in an environment where there is the added importance of controlling children who aren't able to lead themselves. Trying to equalise and flatten structures could be like trying to create a capitalist society without classes (Eyal *et al.*, 2000). While advocating DL, Manager A thought staff should develop their leadership skills because 'life is a competition.' Both Managers referred to opportunities to 'rise up in the organisation' and Volunteer A spoke about leadership progress as a

'ladder.' The findings of this thesis point to the fact that the volunteer programme, run in both Centres, actually exploited elements of hierarchy to recruit and encourage participation. Without the senior leadership positions, with higher status and financial reward to aspire to, the staff of both Centres might have lost motivation, become dissatisfied or left, detrimental to leadership continuity.

In response to these confusions, this thesis used the term 'leadership distribution' as a generic definition for any leadership involving more than one individual. Because management activity is tightly entwined with leadership, all activity that contributed to the direction of the Centre such as strategic planning, evaluating, visioning, involvement in decisions or performing management tasks was investigated. The ideals of DL were then seen as a list of potential attributes for all leadership that is distributed displayed in figure 3-3 in section 3.2. These include creating flatter and more flexible networks, involving all in developing a strategic direction and vision, supporting reciprocal relationships, developing values such as empathy and trust and growing leadership skills in 'safe' environments. These benefits were critically analysed against the criticisms of DL that could be considered as cautions. This thesis recognised that leadership and its distribution were actually being managed, including the contributions from those learning to lead, demonstrated in both Centres in the volunteer programme, and most leadership grew from within management tasks such as planning a curriculum or evaluating. Therefore it is argued by the researcher that there needs to be a different approach as to how the distribution of leadership is considered.

7.4 A new approach to leadership distribution

This thesis puts forward the notion of a 'Universal Leadership Culture.' It has been informed by the literature review, findings and discussion found in this thesis and is developed from the four themes relating to the efficacy of distributing leadership in future Extended Learning Activities as discussed in 6.4. It embraces the idea that everyone is involved and leadership is universally part of a Centre's activity. All staff have an awareness of how they are involved and are encouraged to engage according to how far they are 'ready' (willing and able) and comfortable. In this culture, leadership radiates throughout the team, connecting across roles and extending good practice as a continuous learning

experience, not just as a hand-over of responsibility. The term 'universal' does not contradict the notion of a hierarchy in terms of skills and experience nor struggle with contradictions of power that might come with accountability. This approach would help organisations develop ethical social norms and behaviours, 'shaping organisation culture' (Murphy, 2009, p.182) and developing a balance between equality and power. Following Chaleff's (2009, p.50) argument that followers need 'courage and skills' to challenge, stand up to and for their leaders in order to 'better serve the organisation,' this approach would embrace this role as part of a leadership culture. It would encompass elements of both the courage and skill of leading and following in every role with open conversations between staff about where responsibilities finish and accountability begins, especially if tasks are an extension to the job description.

In this approach staff would grow like plants in Cole's (1996, p.286) metaphorical garden and the 'distributor' would be replaced by what Edwards (2015, presentation slides) refers to as a 'gardener,' as she says, 'working between agencies at the interface of exchange' to ensure staff structures remain balanced by flexibility and strength. Reliant on developing social norms, this culture could be introduced to an organisation in one area and encouraged to spread elsewhere, easing issues about individual participation or compliance and focusing more on leadership as an activity. Having a more accurate definition from the outset would provide better guidance for practitioners working as a team to lead an organisation. The 'Universal Leadership Culture', presented below in figure 7-1, encompasses clear themes presented in the conclusions from the findings section above and discussed in 6.4.

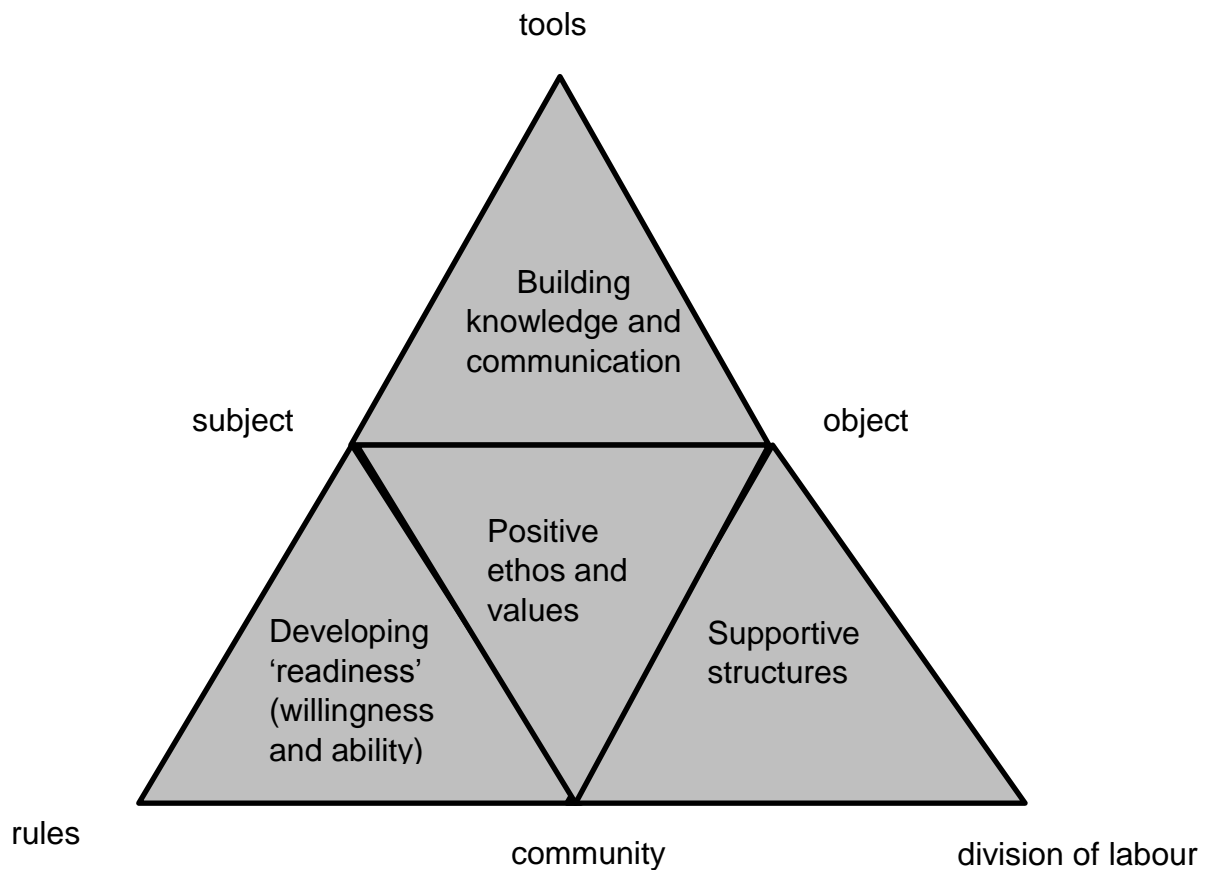


Figure 7-1 The Universal Leadership Culture model

Being presented in a triangular model, the Universal Leadership Culture makes reference to the Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) and, like the elements in CHAT, the sections work together in balance and are not mutually exclusive, being influential and dependent on each other. Activity systems can be used as a framework for learning (Gronn, 2000, p.327) and it is proposed that this model could be used by practitioners to begin internal conversations amongst staff. It would enable them to consider how and why current mediations and contradictions between the elements in the activity systems have created 'basic assumptions' on how to respond to problems, then taught to others (Schein, 1992, p.12). This model can help practitioners to identify what

areas of the triangle their practice is sitting in and how that practice can be developed to ensure there is a balance across all four areas. It might illustrate a '*subject*'s action in relation to the other elements in the interactivity systems to consider what the 'motives' of participants are and 'what matters' (Edwards, 2015, Slide 6).

7.5 Limitations of the Thesis

The 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution', developed for this investigation, collected and made sense of qualitative data within an Interpretative Paradigm (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p.19). There was an attempt to make the methodology transparent. However, decisions not discussed in this thesis, may have been made unwittingly by myself as the researcher due to a lack of experience and awareness. Case Study research was chosen for its ability to deal with a variety of sources of evidence (Yin, 2003, p. 8) following the case-centred inquiry's (Riessman, 2008, p.195) aim of creating examples to highlight important issues about leadership distribution found in ELAs in England. The sample size was relatively small, appropriate to the qualitative nature of the research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2006), and the two London based Centres were chosen 'purposefully' (Burton, Brundett and Jones, 2008) for their establishment and duration in the PfS programme. But they did not reflect all of the different socio-economic settings in other locations that might have provided a broader insight. This investigation was limited because there was only one researcher, made more problematic due to the high demands on time and resources in gaining life stories (Moyles, 2007). It was also difficult to maintain complete confidentiality due to being an in-depth study that is connected to myself as the researcher. The fieldwork was conducted over a period of ten months. I felt this was sufficient to collect enough data to enable the exploration of significant features, create plausible interpretations and 'provide an audit trail by which other researchers might validate or challenge the findings, or construct alternative arguments' (Bassey, 1999, p.65). It was accepted that as the relationships, motives and intentions were captured as 'slices of time,' data might have been different if collected from observations at another time by a different observer with a different focus (Muijs *et al.*, 2004, p.55).

Data was collated and organised using coding within the computer software NVivo8 and Categories were taken from the elements found in the CHAT activity systems. Within the first codes a second layer of codes emerged. Decisions on what these themes were came from the investigator's own interpretations, demonstrating that theoretical and epistemological commitments were not coded in an epistemological vacuum (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Therefore these may have been weakened by my own bias because as a researcher I was not able to free myself from my own perceptions and interpretations and code data in an epistemological vacuum (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Human influence over the data was taken into consideration, and the preconceived notions of the investigator, especially as an insider were critically reflected on throughout the research, a process given more attention below in section 7.5.1. Internal consistency and coherence became important quality checks, to ensure that the stories constructed were plausible and consistent and validation rather than validity was felt to be important (Mishler, 1990). While Kvale and Brinkmann (2009, p.177) note software such as NVivo8 can 'help with completeness and reliability in examining the text and in the analysis,' they cannot 'replace intellectual skill for identifying themes, underlying relationships' (Parker, 2004, p.163). While using NVivo8 therefore, it was necessary to check that meaning was retained in all of the text produced in transcripts, field notes and in documents. Although attempts were made to follow the same process or coding using the software by hand for the non-electronic material, data may have been weakened through a lack of consistency.

7.5.1 Positionality of an insider

This section throws some light on previous literature's vagueness about what insiders actually experience (Chavez, 2008, p.475). As it's Line-manager, I was an 'indigenous insider' (Banks, 1998, p.8) to Centre A, but an 'indigenous outsider' for Centre B which had been a partner organisation with Centre A for many years. Having worked within PfS and Local Government for over 15 years I understood the language adopted in the Centres, and could recognise regular or unusual occurrences. In Centre A in particular, where I knew the participants, there was an awareness of what might be hidden behaviours, non-verbal gestures, discomfort and embarrassment (Chavez, 2008, p.478) that to some extent could provide a guide for interacting with Centre B. However, due to my familiarity with the staff at Centre it was challenging to establish a rapport that

maintained appropriate relationships within expected boundaries (Sherif, 2001, p.437). The closeness might have also meant I had difficulties recognizing leadership distribution patterns in Centre A and the wider community of PfS that Centre B belonged to. Data revealed some of the same values and beliefs that had developed into professional cultures between Centres. However, as Line-manager to Centre A I was surprised to find that some of the staff working in it had very different perceptions of what distribution of leadership was effective to my own. It was therefore really important to be open during interviews with staff while maintaining the overall direction of the schedule.

While it was a valid standpoint in the process, I recognised like others (Beoku-Betts, 1994, p. 430), that there were complexities that made the insider research approach fragile. As Chavez (p.2008) argues, most of the guidance found was on practical issues and not on the personal challenges an insider experiences. By embarking on this study I have learnt about the benefits but also the challenges that working as an insider offers. In both Centres the investigation was taking place in an environment that was linked to my professional life, which proved to be a distraction (Kanuha, 2000, p.441). Due to my personal interest in Centre A, I was aware that data might have been looked at from a competitive angle to Centre B and I may have willed there to be more positive examples of leadership distribution in Centre A. As the researcher, I might have only seen what I wished to see and influenced the opinions of interviewees, finding it hard to accept their view if it was different from mine. As an educational practitioner, it was equally hard in Centre B. I reflected in my field notes for the observed 'Guard of Honour' activity, dated 14.07.12:

At this point I finish my observing and offer my help to the teacher [as an ex-art teacher], I try to organise the students to paint a bit each and draw out some trickier bits seeing as they were running out of time.

Sensing the panic of the teacher and having gathered a couple of hours of data, I felt I was justified in abandoning my researcher's role and offering my support, motivated by altruism and feeling guilty for just watching. It was equally hard for some of the staff in Centre A to accept me as just a researcher and not the Line-manager of the Centre. Teacher A was apologetic that unless he felt

someone was more skilled than him he did not like to share his work. It was clear he was aware my own differing opinions and wishes for the leadership to be distributed in the Centre. It also highlighted that possibly this was the first time he had been questioned about his own feelings as to how leadership should be distributed, demonstrating aspects of DL were not present. Seeing the interviewee in person also made anonymity and confidentiality more acute in Centre A, limiting truthful answers because the relationships would continue after the research (Bosit, 2010, p.116). Despite a conscious decision to be non-judgmental and remain neutral by turning a blind eye to incidents (Hopkins and Jackson, 2008), because of my familiarity with staff and deeper knowledge of practice, it was nearly impossible to remain a total observer in Centre A.

This study placed the self within the research process and its written products, developing a reflexive connection between the 'researcher's and participants' lives' (Brunier, 2006, p.410). While being aware of my changing identity in the research process discussed above, it was also important to maintain a researcher's perspective rather than a monitoring or quality control one as Line-manager to the Centre, particularly problematic given the qualitative expectation of the researcher to be reflective (Chavez, 2008, p.441). As I established previously in 4.4.1, I had a 'nested positionality' as I was responsible for creating many of the documents analysed and procedures observed in Centre A or had influenced those in Centre B, such as the volunteer programme, making me both the subject and the object in the community (Chavez, 2008, p.478). It was necessary to ask myself where the self and the other began, whether the influence of being researcher and researched was weakened or strengthened by the degree of my perceived or real closeness to the participants and to be aware that this might shift during interaction as a result of shared experience or social identities (Labaree, 2002).

7.5.2 The theoretical framework

My thesis developed a 'Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution' by combining concepts from the Distributed Leadership Perspective (Spillane, 2006) as lines of inquiry and areas of focus with concepts from Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). This worked well because both fields of studies had roots in the social sciences and CHAT constrained DL, making it

possible to draw meaningful conclusions. Cole and Wertsch (1996) and Harris and Spillane (2008) drew attention to its potential and Engeström (2016, p.vii) suggested that CHAT worked better with theoretical concepts from other fields, describing CHAT as being 'intertwined with transformations in education'. This framework guided data collection and analysis using the 'person-plus' and the 'practice-plus' aspects from the Distributed Leadership Perspective (Harris and Spillane, 2008). But it investigated 'how' and 'why' leadership distribution was happening, questions not asked in previous descriptive studies using the Perspective. Spillane and Healey (2010, p.258), for example, only echoed normative approaches to studying DL, discussed in 2.6, by asking 'what', 'where' and 'who.' However, it was complex to work with a multitude of concepts and time-consuming to manage. For example, time limitations prevented me from carrying out a more in-depth analysis for each contradiction found in the mediations at the individual micro-staff member level or at the macro-organisational level using Engeström's (2001, p.137), 'Levels of Contradictions' discussed in 3.2.2.

The 'Alignments of Distribution' developed from the work of DL scholars (Gronn, 2002, MacBeath, 2004, Spillane, 2006, Hargreaves and Fink, 2006, Leithwood, Mascall and Strauss, 2009, (see 2.6.2), became the final stage of analysis in this framework. They supported discussion about what implications could be drawn about the efficacy of models of leadership distribution in the Centres. It was apparent that when DL is not working well there were contradictions between the elements in the activity systems and the distribution of leadership slid from being, *formally*, *pragmatically* or *organically* aligned to being *chaotically* aligned, as illustrated in Figure 6-1. However, while I felt four categories of alignments were appropriate for this investigation, I acknowledge there might be slight variations within categories.

7.5.3 Employing CHAT as a critical lens

Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) offered adaptive and reflexive activity systems which could respond to data emerging from the research process (Bottoms, 2008, p.99). It provided a structure against which the leadership distribution could be viewed to consider how it was aligned. This offered more explanation as to how and why leadership distribution was taking place and

where it wasn't supporting the leadership in the Centres to achieve their goals. Most ELAs, are run by small staff teams. Consequently it is important to acknowledge that leadership and management were closely intertwined in the Centres. CHAT offered a broad approach (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010, p.71) for this study to investigate how leadership was distributed through all activity, including management tasks, and how staff contributed to the vision and direction of the Centres. It provided an analytical structure called an activity system that could consider how the different elements in the activity mediated together to create the distribution of leadership. It illuminated the influences and interactions between the elements of subjects (staff), tools, rules, community and division of labour, found in the action of leadership distribution, to achieve the object (Centre's goals). It became a visual representation of what distribution was happening in the Centres and allowed me to zoom in on specific elements while keeping a wider holistic picture. For example, the issues created by introducing the Olympic and Paralympic curriculums or placing Volunteers in sessions could be analysed against the broader objectives of raising aspirations as set out by the Playing for Success (PfS) initiative. Leadership distribution could be examined within the larger community context to understand the activity within the specific and unique setting of a large sports club.

This interpretative theoretical lens supported the consideration of the 'cultural' and 'historical' aspects of the distribution of leadership to consider the past, present and possible future. Insights were gained into the historic significance of prior leadership distribution and the disturbances and conflicts staff might have experienced that had become contradictions or potential barriers. However, whilst the activity systems represented a cultural historical picture, it has to be remembered that the data gathered in this study was a slice of activity recorded by the researcher at a specific time and another snapshot at a different time might show other insights not captured here. CHAT intertwines human thought and action (Leont'ev, 1981, Wertsch, 1991). CHAT supported me to consider the social and organisational norms, in relation to individuals with different roles, motives and psychological tools (Murphy, 2009, p.189, Tay and Lim, 2016, p.91). CHAT highlighted the reciprocity in mediations between elements to create distribution and was a useful lens for considering the leadership distribution in the Centres within a wider organisational structure and the wider

community (Foot, 2014). For example the QiSS (quality in study support) kite mark developed a way of thinking that encouraged all to take on leadership (QiSS, 2014) and the change in Government funding and host organisation partner had influenced the leadership distribution in the Centres. CHAT supported the consideration of how changes in policy and popular educational practices had impacted on individuals and practice in the Centres.

However, I found that the theoretical framework developed for this thesis had practical limitations. In using CHAT I felt that Engeström's descriptions of the elements were limited by specialised abstract terminology that was not naturally conducive to education also pointed out by Gedera (2016, p.59). It needed 'pragmatic integration' in an educational context despite the fact that CHAT had its historic roots in the pioneering work of Vygotsky and Leont'ev 'closely intertwined with transformations in education' (Engeström, 2016, p.vii). The activity systems were good for 'an intense, systematic process of examining and re-examining the data while comparing one source with another to find similarities and differences' (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010, p.73), and for considering similarities and differences in the mediations between the elements at the three levels of micro-, meso- and macro-activity systems. However, it was difficult to relate two or more activity systems to each other and no examples were found in the literature as to how this might look.

7.5.4 Future actions

Further work is needed to develop the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution as a research model before other researchers adopt it. For example, the creation of further categories within the alignments of *formal*, *pragmatic*, *organic* and *chaotic* could offer scope for more detailed analysis. The 'Levels of Contradictions' set out by Engeström (2001, p.137), discussed in 3.2.2, could be used more extensively. A longitudinal study might be more diagnostic as the elements are always interacting through mediations in an activity system. If the reoccurrences of contradictions (disruptions and barriers to the distribution of leadership) were recorded at points in time they might help to identify where in an organisation contradictions were happening, and answer how and why. CHAT allows researchers and participants to see when members active in the system are constrained by that very system (Dijk *et al.*, 2011) and

another study with more time might have helped me as an insider analyse my own research activity. CHAT needs to be able to illustrate three or more activity systems, which future research on leadership distribution could create. In order to explore the potential of alignments further it would be good to experiment with placing the triangular activity systems over each other, from macro- to micro-, to see if contradictions align in the same areas. To broaden insights into leadership distribution in ELAs, future research could choose to involve more Centres from different socio-economic settings in the UK and abroad. Table 4-1 in section 4.3.1 presents the similarities and differences between the researcher and the participants, but during the process it became apparent that these were possibly not as influential as other aspects of the participants' identity such as perceived class, ethical values or opinions about the distribution of leadership in the Centres. This area of work might also include an understanding of the role of Emotional Intelligence in leadership (Blackmore, 2013) and what part it plays in the distribution of leadership in particular. Despite the fact that the Games Values were already studied and explored in many educational organisations in 2012 the Government declared recently that schools should be teaching them. Aspects relating to the causal relationship between Olympic and Paralympic Values and the distribution of leadership appeared in the data but was not the focus of this investigation. All of these concerns could be explored in another study.

From a personal professional viewpoint, by carrying out this investigation, I have gained an insight into my own leadership practices. I Line-manage Centre A involved in this study and now have a better understanding of what distribution of leadership is taking place, how colleagues feel about their own leadership practice and what have been the outcomes. As a result of this critically reflective exercise I will consider what structures I can put in place to ensure that leadership distribution is more effective. The findings demonstrated that Centre A had a lot of organic alignments of distribution. However, they needed to be more balanced with formal and pragmatic alignments to avoid creating *chaotic* leadership activity they were heading towards. As part of this structure I will build in opportunities for colleagues to discuss their distribution more openly with each other using CHAT systems to critically reflect on their own activity.

7.6 Contributions of this Thesis

By combining concepts from two different research practices this thesis has created a theoretical framework that supports an investigation into how and why leadership distribution happens, not just what, where and who is involved. It offers insights into the tensions and conflicts in leadership, useful for practitioners, policy makers and trainers who wish to draw from more recent examples in England, particularly in the areas of ELAs and those that led Olympic and Paralympic related programmes. Apart from the PfS Evaluations (Sharp *et al.*, 2007) there is little written about the Initiative and this study gives a close-up account of the leadership of two successful PfS Centres. ELAs are no longer valued by the DfE it appears, in the development and achievement of children and young people in England, and they have sadly lost importance in educational concerns. Although not the main focus, it is hoped this thesis may draw attention to their worth.

Leont'ev (1981, p.83) believed that every new research endeavour using CHAT took 'one step closer to a better understanding of the world around us.' From recent literature (Gedera and Williams, 2016) there appears to be little demonstration of how CHAT is used in educational research despite the call for it (Gronn, 2000). This investigation has added then to the research base of knowledge about CHAT and has provided an illustrative example of how CHAT can be used to examine leadership distribution in ELAs. This investigation offers a different way of analysing data that helps researchers consider how and why it takes place and therefore should ameliorate the lack of empirical evidence to confirm its potential worth (Spillane and Healey, 2010, p.253).

While I was writing this thesis I contributed to the University of East London's conference: 'Evaluating the Legacy of the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games Four years on' Conference dated 20th September, 2016. I presented a seminar on the educational legacy of PfS Centres and the role played by leadership distribution. I also contributed to the Cass School of Education at the University of East London's Research Seminar dated 7th December, 2016, by presenting on the use of CHAT for my thesis. My knowledge and understanding of leadership within ELAs was presented to a group of Dutch Playing for Success Managers on the 15th June, 2016 and I am currently working on a teacher

exchange with other PfS Centres from Berlin in relation to educational leadership. As discussed in 7.4, I intend to develop the new approach of a 'Universal Leadership Culture' into a professional model, which can support others to find a positive way of developing the leadership distribution in ELAs. Although this Lens was used to compare two cases in this study, it could be applied to a single case or by a practitioner wishing to understand the leadership distribution in their own establishment. By using the activity systems in a self-evaluative exercise they could produce a holistic picture to see where the contradictions and challenges lie in attempting to improve leadership practice (Spillane, 2006). In that respect the 'Alignments of Distribution', formulated from the many descriptive models proposed by DL scholars, is a useful contribution that works within this new approach. It is hoped it will be rolled out to support other PfS Centres and Extended Learning teams in schools nationally and abroad.

7.7 Concluding remarks

Gladwell (2002, p.29) claims companies make assumptions 'that an organisation's intelligence is simply a function of the intelligence of its employees. They believe in stars, because they don't believe in systems.' Building on this comment I wish to assert offering opportunities and nurturing the talent of individuals can create great organisations with intelligent leadership. Olympism promotes equality and respect but demands the fastest and strongest. This will always be the challenge in an educational environment, where equity is given priority but the ultimate goals are for pupils to exceed to higher grades in preparation for a competitive job market. Alongside pupils, staff are encouraged in the Centres to aspire to future achievements. From the accredited volunteer programme right through to training and shadowing, the ethos of the Centres is to encourage staff to attain higher positions within their careers. The findings from this study have shown that staff appreciated being an equal member of the team, where respect is given to everyone despite their role. However, contradicting this is the evidence from this study that demonstrates that part of the motivation to participate in leadership distribution comes from progression and is positively harnessed by managers in order to capitalise on the willingness of staff to participate in leadership distribution. It could be argued that encouraging volunteers to aspire to jobs and higher career

prospects in the Centres is actually contradictory to the ideals of Distributed Leadership and can become exploitative. On the one hand there is a sense of equity to encourage and give confidence, on the other there is competition to gain a higher role in the Centre. If the flatter structures of DL were achieved there would be no hierarchy for staff to progress within and there would be no advanced roles to aspire to. Alternatively staff may not have other ambitions and wish to stay in the role they are in, meaning they could be less willing to take on leadership distribution offered to them. Ultimately the Centres are delivering a programme for children and young people who are in their care. This is a highly responsible situation and it may be impossible to remove the reality of staff having different accountabilities, linked to pay and status, when they need to be highly organized to keep pupils safe, whilst raising attainment, using Government funds or grants from others.

As Bolman and Deal (2003) maintain, leaders and managers should view management more as a moral and ethical undertaking. They suggest we need managers who love their work and organizations and respect people whose lives they affect. However, in the present circumstances where cuts are turning Local Government into commissioners, Centre A is a lot more vulnerable than Centre B. It is likely it will need to become more self-sufficient as a stand-alone business, or become absorbed into a larger charity organisation like Centre B is in the Community Department of the Football Club. It might need to change the whole way it works. Hopefully both Centres will be able to maintain their focus on values to support their future leadership. While the growing use of leadership distribution appears to be inevitable, fewer resources may make alignments of leadership distribution more *formal* and *pragmatic* and increase the potential for them to become *chaotic* if not flexible and *organic* enough to take the strain.

Throughout this thesis it has been noted that there are confusions in the definitions for the distribution of leadership. This study revealed that where there was little understanding or communication as to the strategy behind leadership distribution in the Centres, there were chaotic alignments of distribution with 'nobody in charge' (Buchanan *et al.*, 2007). A lack of direction resulted in resentment and a lack of motivation. The new concept and term presented in this Chapter of a 'Universal Leadership Culture' offers a different

way of looking at the distribution of leadership. It encompasses four messages relating to: a positive ethos and values, readiness (willingness and ability), building knowledge and communication, and supportive structures (see fig. 7-1), that emerged from the DL literature, findings and analysis from the study and discussion. It suggests everyone is aware and involved in leadership as a universal part of a Centre's activity. Leadership connects across roles developing good practice as a continuous learning experience, which is part of the organisational culture and not separate. It would encompass elements of both the courage and skill of leading and following in every role with open conversations between staff about where responsibilities finish and accountability begins, especially if tasks are an extension to the job description. If leadership is to consist of 'visioning, being inspirational, initiating change, being both an artist and analyst, directing towards achievements and objectives, as was highlighted by the literature (Cuban, 1988, Bolman and Deal, 2003, Coleman, 2005, Jovanovic and Sajfert, 2010) in Chapter Two, it could be argued that all roles and activities can encompass this philosophy. In relation to accountability the formal leader would not be a 'distributor' but a 'gardener' to ensure staff structures remain balanced by flexibility and strength. It is suggested that practitioners and researchers interested in using the distribution of leadership in relation to Extended Learning Activities could use the Theoretical Lens for Leadership Distribution developed for this thesis for their own investigations as suggested previously in 7.4. It can be used to analyse what distribution is taking place and consider where it is supporting leadership to achieve the organisations' outcomes or where there are barriers. It can be introduced and used by the whole team involved in leadership distribution, through regular open conversations to help them plan and discuss where it is or not working. As individuals we learn how to lead ourselves towards good decisions for survival in life. We teach our children and young people to learn these leadership skills. It is natural therefore, and our responsibility as educational organisations, that we should consider the continued learning of everyone we engage with, providing the opportunities to develop leadership skills for staff and pupils. Every new skill we learn is acquired through understanding and practice, which leadership distribution has the potential to achieve. It has many benefits for an educational organisation,

which it has been this thesis's aim to highlight and provide a path towards achieving.

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Appendices

Appendix A Confirmation of ethical clearance

GRADUATE SCHOOL

Head: Dr Carlos De Luna, BSc.Med. Vet., PG-CHEP, MSc, PhD, FHEA
uel.ac.uk/gradschool



Ms Anna Chapman
Cass School of Education and Communities
University of East London
Water Lane
Stratford
London
E15 4LZ

21 January 2015

Dear Ms Chapman

University of East London: research ethics

Study Title: *What role does distributed leadership play in supporting Olympic and Paralympic Games related education programmes?*

I am writing to inform you that the University Research Ethics Committee (UREC) has received your UREC recruitment documents and confirmation that consent was obtained, which you submitted to the Chair of UREC, Professor Neville Punchard. Please take this letter as written confirmation that had you fulfilled the conditions for the approval process for UREC at the appropriate time it is likely that approval would have been granted. However, this does not place you in exactly the same position you would have been in had clearance been obtained in advance. Therefore, when responding to any questioning regarding the ethical aspects of your research, you must of course make reference to and explain these developments in an open and transparent way.

For the avoidance of any doubt, or misunderstanding, please note that the content of this letter extends only to those matters relating to the granting of ethical clearance. If there are any other outstanding procedural matters which need to be attended to, they will be dealt with entirely separately as they fall entirely outside the remit of our University Research Ethics Committee.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Prof Neville Punchard', is written over a light blue horizontal line.

Professor Neville Punchard
Chair, University Research Ethics Committee

Appendix B **Recognised features of DL in the literature**

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • developing cooperation and emerging through collective or collaborative activity, that is reciprocal and social, that bonds individuals and builds social capital
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • consisting of flatter, fluid and flexible structures that harness diverse expertise through networking and multiagency practice to make the team stronger and more resourceful
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • involving all in decision making to create a shared vision, greater commitment and avoiding alienation from power, relieve tensions around power, creating democracy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • spreading the workload and stretching cognition over both human actors, their tools and aspects of the context, developing a capacity and ability to respond to changing needs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • shifting focus from individual attributes and behaviours to a more systemic perspective which guides the leadership process to encourage empathy, trust and risk-taking
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • supporting leadership succession which helps good leadership practice to continue
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • building strength across an organisation through self-evaluation and discussion
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a term, that can mislead practitioners since leadership can occur within a variety of practice situations involving teams and networks between organisations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • confused with delegation and may be simply counterintuitive to the idea of leadership with no one in charge or direction coming from bottom-up direction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • only being enacted by those who are willing to participate to please their seniors or by organisations wishing to tick a box in relation to equal opportunity
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • concentrating on the adult's learning as opposed to the child and detracting from the purpose of an organisation, with some types of distribution more effective than others
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spreading the manager's workload towards exploitation

Appendix C **DL literature alongside CHAT elements**

Theme	Description/Evidence	Reference
Object /Aligning motives	Sharing a vision towards a common goal of raising aspirations and attainment, encouraging leadership as a learning opportunity, sharing good practice, working to maximum potential and embracing a feeling of 'in it together'. Emerging evidence of positive relationship between DL and outcomes but questioning if some patterns of distribution are more productive than others.	(Murphy, 2009, p.187) (Harris, 2009) (Leithwood <i>et al.</i> , 2007, 2009)
Tools /Building Common Knowledge Inspiration	Sharing of Expertise when 'leader' does not have specialist knowledge Cognition is 'stretched over' both human actors and aspects of the context they are in developing a capacity to act by means of 'concertive action,' 'co-performance' or 'conjoint agency' Learning together from each other, being open to developing skills to engage and motivate young people, developing effective processes of delegation and empowerment, not limiting to leader behaviour resulting in subordinate behaviour, creating a dynamic reciprocal relationship, two-way process that influences both individuals and organizational performance. Recognising individual's specific expertise and developing personal/professional interests, making use of 'people wisdom', making decisions together to develop a higher level of trust and morale. Combining leadership of many individuals in the organization to be greater than the sum of the parts, creating opportunities for staff to exercise leadership supporting staff to be involved in decision-making. Reflection.	(Carson <i>et al.</i> , 2007, Mullins, 2007, Pearce and Conger, 2003) (Gronn, 2002) (Guirdham, 2002, p.423) (Mullins, 2007, p.364) (Oduro, 2004, p.1) (Davies and Davies, 2006, p.34) (Woods and Gronn, 2009, p.447) (Spillane <i>et al.</i> , 2001, p.24) (Harris, 2007, p.319)
Subject /personal qualities	Leadership emerges from 'a group or network of interacting individuals.' Trusting in each other's abilities to carry out the role assigned, using a critical friend as a 'trusted person who asks provocative questions,' who has	(Bennett <i>et al.</i> , 2003, p.7) (Costa and Kallick, 1993, p.49) (Baron, 2007, p.57, Harris, 2009)

	<p>knowledge and understanding of the context of the school or centre.</p> <p>Evaluation - Taking initiative, self-evaluating and taking on new educational cultures to 'share knowledge', sharing leadership. Using a critical friend to support and challenge, working as a team and sharing accountability for student learning 'shaping organisation culture' (Murphy, 2009, p.182) and being a role model. Continuing to work through issues despite knock-backs with a willingness to participate and contribute to the success of the relationship.</p> <p>Leaders adopt the most appropriate leadership style at different times, particularly when challenged or needing to collaborate.</p> <p>Respect.</p>	<p>(Swaffield, 2005, p.47) (Hallinger and Heck, 2010, p.106) (Murphy et al, 2009, p.182) (Harris, 2007, p.321) (Swaffield, 2005, p.47, p.56) (Leithwood, <i>et al.</i>, 2009, p.xvii) (Hallinger and Heck, 2010, p.106),</p> <p>(Fullan 2001; Morrison, 2009, p.7)</p>
Community	<p>Distributed Leadership, in 'forward moving' Local government organisations, was exercised by those people who have constructed alliances, support, systems and collaborative cultures for inter-agency working through flatter structures</p> <p>Influence.</p>	<p>(Gronn, 2002)</p>
Rules	<p>Working to Job Descriptions but re-thinking power concepts towards the development of a community-anchored organization whilst encouraging independency to develop self-belief and ownership in problem-solving.</p> <p>Contradictions/tensions/internal conflict becoming catalyst for creativity.</p>	<p>(Murphy, 2009, p.183)</p> <p>(MacBeath and Jardine, 1998, p.42).</p>
Division of Labour	<p>Distributed ideas develop from need to develop fluid and flexible structures.</p> <p>Participation in decision-making promotes greater commitment and vision with group feelings giving better guidance than that of just the leader... distributed leadership is a vehicle for leadership discussions and decisions to be made 'in-concert' leading to higher staff morale.</p> <p>Opportunities for leading/distributing.</p>	<p>(Gronn, 2000, 2002; Spillane, 2006. (Burke <i>et al.</i>, 2003; Gronn, 2002, 2006). (Oduro, 2004, p.1) (Davies and Davies, 2006, p.34) (Woods and Gronn, 2009, p.447) (Spillane <i>et al.</i>, 2001, p.24) (Harris, 2007, p.319).</p>

Appendix D **CHAT definitions used in this thesis**


Definition	What it represents in this study
Element	Part of the activity system that works with another in the activity
Subject	Member of staff in a particular role
Tools	Artefacts including objects used and knowledge, understanding
Object	Objectives for the centres towards a goal or vision
Rules	Formal expectations of the role, codes of conduct, work culture
Community	Political backdrop, larger organisation, local community ,context, peers
Division of labour	Formal or informal position in relation to other roles, responsibilities
Mediations	Interactions between the elements in the activity systems
Contradictions	Conflicts, tensions, influence and interruptions in the mediations
Opportunities	Benefits, resolutions and positive outcomes from possible challenges
Internalisation	Tacit knowledge, embedded understandings and accepted beliefs
Culture	Norms in behaviour of staff, patterns of activity repeated
Interactions	Activity that moves across activity systems between roles or groups

Appendix E Alignments of Distribution

Formalised	Pragmatic	Organic	Chaotic
Planful alignment where, following consultation, resources and responsibilities are deliberately distributed to those individuals and/or groups best placed to lead a function (Leithwood <i>et al.</i> , (2009).	Collective distribution where two or more individuals work separately but interdependently to enhance a leadership routine (Spillane, 2006).	Intuitive working Relations where two or more individuals develop close working relations over time until 'leadership' is manifest in the shared role space encompassed by their relationship (Gronn, 2002, p.429).	Anarchic misalignment: where leaders pursue their own goals independently of one another and there is active rejection on the part of some or many organisational leaders (Leithwood <i>et al.</i> , 2009, p.344).
Formal Distribution where leadership is intentionally delegated or devolved (MacBeath, <i>et al.</i> , 2004).	Co-ordinated and Collaborated Distribution where two or more individuals work in sequence in order to complete a leadership routine (Spillane <i>et al.</i> , 2006).	Opportunistic Distribution where people willingly take on additional responsibilities over and above those typically required for their job in a relatively ad hoc manner, (MacBeath <i>et al.</i> , 2004).	Spontaneous Misalignment where, as above, leadership is distributed in an unplanned manner, yet in this case the outcome is less fortuitous and there is a misalignment of leadership activities (Leithwood, <i>et al.</i> , 2009).
Institutionalised Practice where enduring organisational structures (e.g committees and teams) are put in place to facilitate collaboration between individuals (Gronn, 2002).	Incremental Distribution: where people acquire leadership responsibilities progressively as they gain experience (MacBeath <i>et al.</i> , 2004).	Spontaneous Collaboration Where groups of individuals with differing skills, knowledge and/or capabilities come together to complete a particular task/project and then disband (Gronn, 2002).	
Strategic Distribution: where new people, with particular skills, knowledge and/or access to resources, are brought in to meet a particular leadership need (MacBeath <i>et al.</i> , 2004).	Pragmatic Distribution where leadership roles and responsibilities are negotiated and divided between different actors (MacBeath <i>et al.</i> , (2004).	Spontaneous Alignment where leadership tasks and functions are distributed in an unplanned way yet 'tacit and intuitive decisions about who should perform which leadership functions result in a fortuitous alignment of functions across leadership sources' (Harris, 2007, p.344).	
Autocracy is seen as failing to engage others in leadership processes although there may occasions when autocratic leadership may be Necessary, but it can encourage dissent or ill-feeling (Hargreaves and Fink, p.114). Leading from this is traditional distribution carried out through formal organisational structures with responsibility being passed to those in specific positions. Giving power to some may alienate others (Hargreaves and Fink. p.116).	Progressive delegation distributes leadership beyond people in formally designated positions but seeking to ensure that such leadership is tightly prescribed (Hargreaves and Fink p.117). Moving on from this is guided distribution, much more widely spread across the school by the design and direction of the head-teacher. This form of distribution is dependent on the qualities of the head-teacher and is rarely sustained once they leave the school (Hargreaves and Fink. pp.121-122).	Emergent Distribution is where school culture enables members of the school community to seize the leadership initiative, with the security of knowing their ideas and actions will be supported. The head-teacher establishes and sustains the purposeful, inclusive and responsive culture of a professional learning community than directing distribution (Hargreaves and Fink, p.125). Assertive distribution, takes this a step further. Staff can challenge the head-teacher, and are empowered to do so, provided they do not undermine org vision (Hargreaves and Fink, p.132).	Anarchy stresses the fine line between distribution and the dangers of neglecting the responsibilities that leadership entails (Leithwood, <i>et al.</i> , 2009). Movement from autocracy to assertive distribution is marked by structural characteristics giving way to more cultural drivers. The model may be labelled differently, echoing the MacBeath (2005) model.

(building on Bolden's, 2011, p.258)

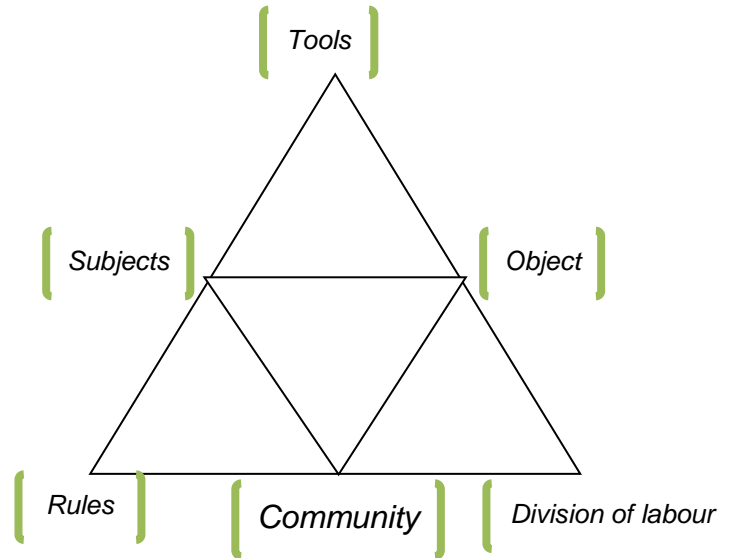
Appendix F Alignments of Leadership Distribution found in data

Formal, Pragmatic, Organic alignment	 Chaotic alignment
<i>Mediations that are supportive to leadership distribution</i>	<i>Contradictions that are unsupportive to leadership distribution</i>
Findings Theme - Inspiration and Aspirations	
Formal: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> There were Olympic resources and opportunities in both Centres. Leadership was seen as an entitlement and opportunity. 	Chaotic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some staff in both Centres did not trust promises attached to the Games. Some staff felt less valued if they did not want to develop leadership skills.
Pragmatic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Volunteer A takes on administrative work to develop his experience. 	Chaotic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Staff could begin to feel exploited if taking on duties not paid for
Organic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Staff became tools for each other. Exciting environment was motivational. 	Chaotic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Empowerment may give staff a false idea about future careers.
Findings Theme – External Influence	
Formal: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> PfS training instilled a sense of distributing vision and involvement in the Managers. Mentors are responsible for being bus escorts that widens their experience. Mentors and Volunteers in Centre A and B write comments in pupils' diaries. Mentor A is also contracted to be a Volunteer Coordinator Mentors can shadow more experienced staff due to high ratios of staff to pupils. 	Chaotic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Both Manager's found it difficult to pass on vision and ethos from PfS. Both Managers lack understanding of their leadership approach.
Pragmatic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> All staff in Centre A take part in the QiSS learning team. All staff in Centre A communicate with the Critical Friend. 	Chaotic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Both Centres need to adapt to staff changing roles through progression. Both Centres need to work with uncertainty in the Club's fortunes. Both Centres needed to adapt to the cut in PfS grants from the DfE and new Government agendas. Both Centres needed to adapt to the remaining partner's different agendas.
Findings Theme - Internal influence	
Formal: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher A is expected to create his own curriculum, content and resources. Teacher B teaches all of the sessions. Teacher B directs the other staff from the front, of the room. 	Chaotic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Being responsible for the curriculum alone could be too much pressure Teacher B returns to school teaching patterns that go against Manager B's ideals.

<p>Pragmatic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteer A used his statistician skills for the larger reports to stakeholders. • Manager B plans the lessons, for Teacher B to adjust. • Mentor B uses her play-worker skills if the coaches are late for the sport session. 	<p>Chaotic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manager B will directly respond to issues she is not responsible for. • Teacher A does not wish to share his leadership as Manager A promotes. • Teacher B could feel less autonomy and trust from her Manager.
<p>Organic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both Centres have a small team and need staff to be multi-skilled. • Mentor A co-leads the OCN volunteer programme with Manager A. • In Centre A reciprocal interactions motivated and inspired staff. • Mentors in Centre B need to supervise pupils when the teacher leaves the room. 	<p>Chaotic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Differences in personalities challenge 'ways of working' between staff. • Staff in Centre A needed to adapt to Manager A's way of working. • Mentor B felt time would help her and Teacher B bond. • Volunteer A felt unsure of his role at times and needed more direction.
<p>Formal:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentors lead small groups under the teacher's direction in Centre A and B. • For the OCN programme volunteers must lead part of the session in Centre A and B. • Manager A and Teacher A teach the sessions. 	<p>Chaotic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher B supported the Centre's needs but was uncomfortable teaching 16-year-olds • Manager B is reluctant to trust staff with less experience. • Sense of empowerment does not reflect real world.
<p>Pragmatic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managers and Teachers in both Centres need to be open to ask for support. • Mentor B needs to support Teacher B by calling parents when necessary. 	<p>Chaotic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staff in both Centres feel slightly exploited by additional responsibilities.
<p>Organic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staff in both Centres feel able to challenge each other despite grade. • Both Centres nurture staff to distribute the leadership. 	<p>Chaotic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both Managers struggle with creating an egalitarian culture. • Friendly relationships in Centre A could compromise professionalism.
<p><i>Findings Theme - Building a Common Knowledge</i></p>	
<p>Formal:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All staff in Centre A are invited to take part in the steering group. • All staff in Centre B are involved with monthly reporting and observations 	<p>Chaotic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centre B uses reporting that may not necessarily empower through sharing information.
<p>Pragmatic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All staff in Centre B gain training to build their skills. • Some staff in Centre B need to complete training as a condition of the job. 	<p>Chaotic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staff may not be willing to develop their skills. • Centre A staff may feel less valued with less training.

Organic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staff in Centre A gain training by working alongside more experienced members. • All staff in Centre A and B are involved in feedback after sessions. • When Mentors escort pupils home they speak to parents about issues. 	Chaotic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sometimes staff are late for staff briefing in Centre B. • Manager A only uses informal observations in passing through the classroom. • Mentor B felt she communicated with parents more than Teacher B realised.
<i>Findings Theme - Perceptions about Leadership</i>	
Formal: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job descriptions imply both Manager B and Teacher B are managing the mentors and volunteers. • All staff appreciate that the Centres strive to have a positive ethos that supports opportunities for all. 	Chaotic: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peer mentors in Centre A and B were unsure of their role. • Teacher B felt she was the link-line to schools and parents. • Manager A's lack of structure may not be supportive to her staff. • All staff understand the concept of leadership distribution differently

Appendix G Interpretations of CHAT terms



(Engeström, 1987)

Object	Desirable outcome; improvement, Shared goals, vision, culture, motivation, aspiration.
Subject	Managers, teachers, mentors and volunteers.
Tools	Instruments / Artefacts, Tools as mediation for knowledge interaction.
Community	Situation / Context, Community organisations, Social democracy / capital, networking, culture, ethos.
Rules	Systems for activity, Complexity of work, Shared decisions, Culture, traditions.
Division of Labour	Leader / Follower, Staff structures, relationships. Social democracy, Joint activity / performed.
Mediation	Change and reflexivity, Influence and direction, Communication, Shared cognition, Tools mediating between, Internal / external –representations.
Contradictions	Barriers, disruptions, tensions, in the mediations between the elements that might lead the leadership distribution towards chaotic alignments or could develop into new and advanced practice.

Appendix H **Distribution with contradictions**

<p>Dislocated top-down and bottom-up systems do not match up; leadership does not occur where it is needed. For example, weakened central leadership where budgets are devolved to schools or faculties that make it difficult to initiate and sustain institution-wide initiatives such as corporate branding and IT (Gosling <i>et al.</i>, 2009).</p>
<p>Disconnected different parts of the institution pulling in different directions; lack of consistent/coherent direction/vision; competing agendas. For example, formation of a 'silo mentality' within schools with devolved budgets pursuing their own objectives, not aligned with or even counter to the overall organisation's mission and objectives (Gosling <i>et al.</i>, 2009).</p>
<p>Disengaged staff disengage from management processes may be disenfranchised, disenchanted or disinterested. Leadership is seen as unappealing, unrewarding or unnecessary. For example, leadership viewed as administration/bureaucracy rather than strategic and inter-personal (Gosling <i>et al.</i>, 2009)</p>
<p>Dissipated leadership is too broadly diffused across groups with little accountability or responsibility for implementing decisions and actions. This was a frequent criticism of the committee structure, described as a 'washing machine' where decisions go round and round remaining unresolved and disowned (Gosling <i>et al.</i>, 2009).</p>
<p>Distant leadership is felt to be removed from the operational level of the organisation; inaccessible, imposed; not necessarily 'in our best interests'. For example, decisions taken at senior management level and imposed with limited consultation. This situation seems to be amplified where senior managers are physically removed from academic departments Gosling <i>et al.</i>, 2009.</p>
<p>Dysfunctional leadership fails to achieve its intentions; results in unexpected/undesirable outcomes; misalignment of performance measures. For example, negative reaction to performance review and appraisal process by senior staff; performance measures driving individual rather than team behaviour; risk aversion and dysfunctional systems arising from failures of senior leadership (Gosling <i>et al.</i>, 2009).</p>

(Gosling *et al.*, 2009, p.42)

Appendix I **Documentary evidence collected**

The investigator for this study borrowed Halverson's (2007, p.102) three stages of artefacts found in a professional community, but adapted it to be relevant to this study. Documents analysed were categorised in four areas to reflect where they came from and when, relating to the cultural levels (Schein, 2010, p.2) Reference has also been given where content was written or influenced by the researcher themselves in their role with Centre A. This is indicated by 'R'.

Artefacts Centre A	Artefacts Centre B
Stage One – received (national guidance from the Government and PfS) - Macro	
PfS Handbook	PfS Hand Book
LA - Children and Young People's Plan 2011- 2014	Foundation Hand Book
Stage Two – received (Local guidance from Local Authority and Football Club Foundation) – Meso	
Staff Structure	Staff Structure
JD Manager	JD Manager
JD Teacher	JD Teacher
JD Lead Mentor	
JD Volunteer Coordinator - R	
Stage Three (a) – used locally, made in the past or inherited (kite marks, plans, procedures, promotional) - Micro	
Volunteer Programme outline - R	Volunteer Programme outline - R
Tutor Guidelines for Volunteer Programme - R	Tutor Guidelines for Volunteer Programme - R
QiSS Kite Mark revalidation at Advanced - R	Application for the Get Set Network May, 2009
Times tables and lesson plans	Lesson plan for PfS after school session 12.05.09
	'Pass it On' lesson plan
Stage Three (b) – made regularly locally (reports, plans for improvement or professional development)	
Annual Evaluation Report 2011	Annual Evaluation Report 2010
Promotional Brochure	Promotional Brochure
Steering Group Minutes, February 2012	Manager monthly report for FC February 2012
Steering Group Minutes, September 2012	Teacher monthly report to Manager September 2012
	Lesson observation by Manager on Teacher date 24.11.11
	Newspaper article for Guard of Honour students. Accessed 11.10.12
	Newspaper article - Chief Exec and Olympics 18.02.09
Centre Website: Accessed 14. 11.10	Centre Website: Accessed 20.12.10
Volunteer portfolio's reflection on development	Volunteer portfolio's reflection on development

Appendix J Interviews with Centre staff

Who	When	Who	When
Manager A	14. 09.12	Manager B	03.10.12
Teacher A	14. 09.12	Teacher B	03.10.12
Mentor A	14. 09.12	Mentor B	04.10.12
Volunteer A	02.11.12	Volunteer B	18.09.12

Appendix K Sessions observed in the Centres

Session	Date	Description
Centre B – LOCOG training session to be a reporter during the Games. Teachers and parents (not counted but approx. 15), 19 pupils (from lots of different schools)	27.06.12	Manager B took two of her young people to attend a London Organising Committee for the Olympic and Paralympic Games, training on how to be a young presenter and reporter during the Games. I observed the session and in total there were 19 young people ranging from 14 – 18-years-old and supporting teachers, who all signed a consent form prior to my observation.
Centre B – PfS after school session. 1 Teacher, 3 Mentors, 11 pupils.	04.06.12	A general PfS after school session for primary pupils about numeracy and literacy.
Centre A – PfS after school session. 1 Teacher, 2 Mentors, 11 pupils.	02.07.12	An after school session, primary pupils aged 9 – 11 attending a young apprentice programme. The session's primary aim was to build numeracy and literacy skills but through an enterprise type activity. There were 11 participants who took home a consent form prior to the activity to be signed by themselves and their parents.
Centre B – Saturday School Olympic banner session. 1 Teacher, 2 Mentors, 3 peer mentors, 6 pupils.	14.07.12	A Saturday School session to make a banner to welcome the USA Olympic athletes with as guards of honour, mixed ages.
Centre A – Summer School Games promotion. 1 Manager, 1 Teacher, 1 Volunteer, 13 pupils.	14.09.12	A course to design a promotional advertisement for WHU to move to the Olympic stadium as part of summer school, participants were aged 8 – 11. I went to observe on Day 3. There were 15 participants who took home a consent form prior to the activity to be signed by themselves and their parents.
Centre A – Summer School session to design a kit for 2012. 1 Manager, 1 Teacher, 2 Mentors, 14 pupils.	21.08.12	Day two of a course in fashion business as part of Summer School. The main theme was to design an athlete's kit for the games and participants were aged 8 – 11. There were 15 participants who took home a consent form prior to the activity to be signed by themselves and their parents.

Appendix L Coding on the reports for Centre B

My Codes: Subject, Tools, Object, Rules, Community, Division of Labour

Position – Sessional Teacher

Reporting Month: April 2012

Task 1 - Organise, manage and deliver activity programme	Progress	Evidence	Next Steps	Deadline	Personal Rating 1-4	Line Managers Rating 1-4
To prepare and deliver SS /A4A literacy/numeracy and ICT study support programme	Awards for All planned and in the process of delivery at schools (in second week of delivery). planned and in the process of delivery in (in second week of delivery).	Session plans on hard drive, delivered sessions complete with evaluations also on hard drive.	All students to have accounts for I am learning and access to computers. SS/Orient SolW prepared to end of term.	01/06/2012	3	3
To evaluate and monitor the learning of each student and report their progress to the appropriate parties.	Evaluation sheets used at every session, session plans with evaluations sent to link teachers. End of term reports A4A-SSO	Completed evaluation sheets and evaluations on session plans. Reports on hard drive	Continue to use evaluation sheets and maintain contacts with link teachers. Start to write reports for all students.	01/06/2012	3	3
To assist Senior Education Officer in the preparation of teaching materials and other resources.	All materials planned and prepared. Letters regarding half term and cancellation of session due to stadium event to be created.	Materials and resources available on hard drive. Letters regarding half term and cancellation of session due to stadium event printed and copied.	Hand out letters at appropriate time.	31/05/2012	3	4
Coordinate the monitoring and evaluation of the project and compile reports where necessary	All monitoring and evaluation complete to date.	Session plans and evaluations on hard drive and in session folders.	Continue to keep evaluations and monitoring up to date. Vax, Rosenberg, Numeracy and Literacy assessments completed. Receive and collate Link Teacher Forms. Send out Pupil Parent and Teacher Questionnaires.	01/06/2012	3	2
To prepare and deliver Functional Skills	Teaching from scheme. Level 1 or 2 exams to be sat.	Session plans with evaluations on hard drive, student evidence on individual folders	Students to complete Maths Level 1 or 2. Practice English Level 1.	16/05/2012	1	2
	R T		30/06/2012	Ongoing		

Not linked to Outcomes?

To prepare and deliver Extra Time programme	Prepared materials	F-older on hard drive.	Prepare resources for future sessions liaise with [redacted]	Ongoing	3	4
Task 2 - Staff Support, Management and Development						
To co-ordinate the staff team of teaching assistants and volunteers <i>D R</i>	Regular communication mainly at end of session; would prefer more time at start of sessions.	Use of board and verbal communication. <i>T</i>	Continue to encourage team to arrive early for sessions to brief staff and discuss session. <i>R</i>	Ongoing	3	4
Meeting/Communication with AS once a week	Meeting regularly	Emails and notes	Agenda and email with action points	Ongoing	3	4
Monthly Review	Meeting postponed and rescheduled.	Review document.	Next meeting set for 31/05/2012	Ongoing	2	3
Courses	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A		
Task 3 - Network and Partnership Development						
To assist Senior Education Officer in maintaining good links with all participating schools and ensure the programme feeds into in-school learning.	Session plans, evaluations and registers e-mailed regularly to link teachers. Personal contact with teaching staff via A4A. <i>T</i>	E-mail correspondence.	Maintaining links <i>Community</i>	Ongoing	3	4

Signed

Officer:

Manager:

Date:

3/5/2012

My Notes

- To 'assist' the Senior Education Officer (Manager) is vague and limited. Potential for *conversations* in professional relationships and the extent to which leadership might be distributed without *negotiation*
- Not much reference to aspects relating to 'object' and outcomes/goals, for the organisation or personal development
- High use of terms both physical and psychological - knowledge, experience etc

My notes: Subject, Tools, Object, Rules, Community, Division of Labour



PROVISION

We offer an extensive, professional and fun coaching and education programme to schools and colleges across the boroughs we work in - [redacted] and [redacted]

Offering a number of different sports during curriculum time, early morning, after-school, early evenings, weekends and holiday periods our coaches offer specialist sport coaching such as football, basketball, handball, athletics and multi-sports as well as a whole host of other sports and activities.

Sessions can take place either at your school or college, an agreed venue nearby or one of our existing sporting venues i.e. [redacted]

All sessions will be delivered by our highly trained fully qualified coaching and teaching staff, with enhanced CRB checks and Emergency First Aid and Child Protection Training (all certificates available on request).



EDUCATION CENTRE

The state-of-the-art education centre which overlooks the football pitch at [redacted] includes a fully-equipped ICT suite with both Mac's and PCs which utilise young peoples' enthusiasm for sport and multimedia, in the motivating environment of a professional football club.

This has been the hub for the last ten years for our Key Stage 2/3 Playing For Success project aimed at raising levels in numeracy, literacy and ICT as well as self-esteem, confidence, motivation and independent learning.



[redacted] also used during the day for several other daytime education programmes including a full time alternative education group, and the Sports Coaching Award-OSCA aimed at pupils aged 14-16. On matchdays the centre acts as a press room, with access to the press gantry, making it the ideal base for our Supporters2Reporter project.

For more information contact [redacted] Education Development Officer or [redacted] email [redacted]

SCHOOL AND EDUCATION PROGRAMME

My notes
- Good references to skilled staff and expectations to have had checks etc
- suggestion of needing to be flexible and respond to a range of needs in several boroughs

Appendix N **Semi-structured interview schedule**

Stage	Question/Answer	Referencing
Thank you My Name Purpose	I want to thank you for taking the time to meet me. My name is Anna Chapman and I would like to talk to you about your experiences working at the Centre and in particular about the leadership opportunities here of Olympic and Paralympic related programmes. I hope you have had a chance to read the brief background notes to this study.	
Duration Confidentiality Conduction	The interview should take less than 30 minutes. All your responses will be kept confidential under lock and key and will only be identifiable through my own coded labelling. Once the key research points have been extracted they will be destroyed. I will ensure that any information I do include in my thesis does not identify you as the respondent. Remember you don't have to talk about anything you don't want to and you may end the interview at any time. I will be recording the session because I don't want to miss any of your comments. I will also be taking notes but won't be able to get it all written down. Because I am recording please make sure you speak clearly so we don't miss anything.	
Opportunity for questions Signature of consent	Are there any questions about what I have just explained? Are you still willing to participate in this interview Signatures: Interviewee _____ Witness _____ Date _____	
No more than 10 open-ended questions	Leader Plus Aspect 1. Explain the staff structure and how leadership is distributed in the centre (Difference in these centres – flexible staff structures, human qualities/values that allow for distributed leadership to be successful)	

Factual questions before opinion		
Use probes as needed	2. Describe your role and responsibilities in the centre in relation to other staff members (Interactions between leaders and followers – sources and patterns of influence)	
	3. To what extent are your personal skills acknowledged and utilised and then shared with other staff (Using individual skills – not needing to develop new ones, distributed cognition through social context)	
	Practice Aspect	
	4. Describe what operating tools and systems allow and nurture the development of distributed leadership at the centre	
	5. How are the values of the Games used in the programmes?	
	6. Do you think there is a relationship between the Games values explored through the programmes and distributed leadership in the centre? (Distributed cognition – social context/theme integral)	
Additional Comments	Is there anything more that you would like to add?	
Next steps	I will be analysing the information you and others have given me for my thesis and am happy to give you a copy to review before submission.	
Thank you	Thank you for your time	

Appendix O Letter to participant, student and teacher

University of East London

Merlin Harries, Quality Assurance and Enhancement,

Servicing Officer for University Research Ethics Committee,

Docklands Campus EB.1.05 020 8223 2009 / e-mail m.harries@uel.ac.uk



14.09.12

Dear participant,

The purpose of this letter is to provide you with the information that you need to consider in deciding whether to participate in this study. I am writing to ask you for your consent to participate in research which will involve taking part in an interview:

Dates -Friday 14th September **Times** –10.30am – 2.30pm

Place – (Centres name omitted)

I am currently studying at the University of East London to complete a Professional Doctorate in Education and will be carrying out research to find out what role distributed leadership plays in supporting Olympic and Paralympic Games related education programmes. I am following the British Educational Research Association (2011) guidelines through the research. Your time would be of great help to me and very much appreciated.

The session will include setting up equipment and time to discuss any issues to make sure you feel comfortable and understand the research activity. There should be no hazard or risk, discomfort or distress to any participant. The observation will take place of a normal educational activity and participants are not requested to do anything additional to a normal session. All participants will remain anonymous and to protect confidentiality any hard copies of documentation collected such as reports and policies will be stored in a lockable filing drawer in a lockable office. Recorded field notes will be saved electronically using security measures such as coding to maintain anonymity, onto a secure computer system. Once data is extracted, files will be destroyed and any paper notes and hard copies of documentation will be incinerated ensuring that there is no possible way to retrieve confidential information after destruction.

Please note: You are not obliged to take part in this study, and are free to withdraw at any time during the observation. Should you choose to withdraw you may do so without disadvantage to yourself and without any obligation to give a reason.

If you have any concerns please call me at any time on 07725615482

Many thanks, Anna Chapman (researcher)

Project: What role distributed leadership plays in supporting Olympic and Paralympic Games related education programmes?

I have the read the letter and information relating to the above programme of research in which I have been asked to participate and have been given a copy to keep. The nature and purposes of the research have been explained to me, and I have had the opportunity to discuss the details and ask questions about this information. I understand what it being proposed and the procedures in which I will be involved have been explained to me.

I understand that my involvement in this study, and particular data from this research, will remain strictly confidential. Only the researchers involved in the study will have access to the data. It has been explained to me what will happen once the experimental programme has been completed.

I hereby freely and fully consent to participate in the study which has been fully explained to me and for the information obtained to be used in relevant research publications.

Having given this consent I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without disadvantage to myself and without being obliged to give any reason.

Signed Consent

I give my consent to participate/ for my child (under 16) to participate in the observed activity proposed for the research explained above.

Participant's
name _____ Signature _____ Date _____

Investigator's Name (BLOCK CAPITALS)

.....

Investigator's Signature

.....

Date:

(Please retain one copy for your reference and return one myself)

University of East London

Merlin Harries, Quality Assurance and Enhancement,
Servicing Officer for University Research Ethics Committee,
Docklands Campus EB.1.05 020 8223 2009 / e-mail m.harries@uel.ac.uk



15.08.12

Dear Student /Teacher,

The purpose of this letter is to provide you with the information that you need to consider in deciding whether to participate in this study. I am writing to ask you for your consent to participate in research which will involve taking part in an observed activity:

Dates -Tuesday 15th August **Times** –10.30am – 2.30pm

Place – Centres name omitted

I am currently studying at the University of East London to complete a Professional Doctorate in Education and will be carrying out research to find out what role distributed leadership plays in supporting Olympic and Paralympic Games related education programmes. I am following the British Educational Research Association (2011) guidelines through the research. Your time would be of great help to me and very much appreciated.

The session will include setting up equipment and time to discuss any issues to make sure you feel comfortable and understand the research activity. There should be no hazard or risk, discomfort or distress to any participant. The observation will take place of a normal educational activity and participants are not requested to do anything additional to a normal session. All participants will remain anonymous and to protect confidentiality any hard copies of documentation collected such as reports and policies will be stored in a lockable filing drawer in a lockable office. Recorded field notes will be saved electronically using security measures such as coding to maintain anonymity, onto a secure computer system. Once data is extracted, files will be destroyed and any paper notes and hard copies of documentation will be incinerated ensuring that there is no possible way to retrieve confidential information after destruction.

Please note: You are not obliged to take part in this study, and are free to withdraw at any time during the observation. Should you choose to withdraw you may do so without disadvantage to yourself and without any obligation to give a reason.

If you have any concerns please call me at any time on 07725615482

Many thanks, Anna Chapman (researcher)

Project: What role distributed leadership plays in supporting Olympic and Paralympic Games related education programmes?

I have the read the letter and information relating to the above programme of research in which I have been asked to participate and have been given a copy to keep. The nature and purposes of the research have been explained to me, and I have had the opportunity to discuss the details and ask questions about this information. I understand what it being proposed and the procedures in which I will be involved have been explained to me.

I understand that my involvement in this study, and particular data from this research, will remain strictly confidential. Only the researchers involved in the study will have access to the data. It has been explained to me what will happen once the experimental programme has been completed.

I hereby freely and fully consent to participate in the study which has been fully explained to me and for the information obtained to be used in relevant research publications.

Having given this consent I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without disadvantage to myself and without being obliged to give any reason.

Signed Consent

I give my consent to participate/ for my child (under 16) to participate in the observed activity proposed for the research explained above.

Participant's
name _____ Signature _____ Date _____

Parent's
name _____ Signature _____ Date _____

Investigator's Name (BLOCK CAPITALS)

.....

Investigator's SignatureDate:

(Please retain one copy for your reference and return one to the centre manager)

Appendix P Field notes for an observation of a session

Observation 14.07.12, 12.30 – 10am – 2pm Saturday 'Guard of Honour'	Coding/comments
Centre B – making a banner to welcome the athletes into the stadium	
6 out of 8 students – 12–15yrs old	
1 teacher + 2 mentors	
<p>Children wait for teacher outside the sports hall in the reception area</p> <p>Teacher explains brief for banner – content</p> <p>1 mentor leaves to go on a trip – camping for a week</p> <p>Not in normal classroom but in sports hall – teacher has laid out a painting table and has painted a banner canvas ready to use. Students sit around dry table</p> <p>Teacher passes round orange juice and biscuits</p> <p>The students sit with coloured pencils and paper to make designs on – students were asked to bring designs on A3 sheets – most did</p> <p>At one point teacher leaves to get something leaving the students with the first mentor – very comfortable with each other – discussing ideas, having a joke – positive attitude to activity</p> <p>Teacher leaves again, students with second mentor to get resources – pictures relating to America for banner</p> <p>Students give suggestions as to what they want pictures of (to be printed out)</p> <p>Teacher gives out pictures and then goes back to print out more – mentor wanders around to give support – students drawing ideas – discussing images</p> <p>Teacher brings more pictures – students shout out further requests to print out</p> <p>Mentor reminds students they cannot copy design exactly and need to make images their own – change it a bit</p> <p>A4 sheet example one side – brief the other</p> <p>Brief – banner will welcome athletes on their way through the park towards the stadium for opening ceremony, students will hold up with 2 lanterns – LOCOG provide canvas and poles on either side – country name /or welcome in language – letters size</p> <p>Difficult to be sole – un-participatory</p> <p>Eye contact – smiling to show friendliness, not very serious, difficult interrupting, invisibility by asking for toilet or moving if in the way.</p> <p>Introducing self at the beginning to give assurance but falling back into shadows. Wanting to help such as putting tables out – moving chairs, wanting to offer skills – help the art activity (as an ex-art teacher).</p> <p>Desire to interrupt to ask questions or ask for a specific document, worksheet etc – drawing attention – then continued conversation</p> <p>Behave without own interests involved e.g. not have picture taken with Olympic torch, getting involved with drawing and painting (for enjoyment and sense of achievement/helping) feeling important or valued – staying quiet not interfering.</p> <p>Activity doesn't relate exactly to values but suggests them, taken inspiration from buildings, shapes, map, people, colours, flags, art, architecture</p> <p>Teacher returns with images and wanders around the group supporting with ideas – mentor goes off to get more images. Teacher takes pictures</p> <p>Students – mix of supplementary school students – chosen to return from previous activities – 3 are learning mentors – undertaking ASDAN</p>	

<p>qualification – not obvious if they are given specific leadership roles in activity</p> <p>Students discuss why they have ‘USA’ – because the team are using the football club to stay in during the games</p> <p>1st Mentor returns from trip, it is not ready to leave – bad weather?</p> <p>Teacher mocks up a design as a suggestion but asks students to develop their own. She tries to re-focus the group and asks them to work faster – giving clear time deadline – ‘start painting by 11am.’</p> <p>Teacher holds up idea – Eagle head – suggesting they each take one of their ideas and blow it up large onto A4 to then transfer onto the banner.</p> <p>Teacher takes students’ ideas then gives directions to start the group moving faster.</p> <p>1 student leaves for the toilet – notifying the teacher.</p> <p>Students are still sitting around table with A4 sheets and pencils, very dark – light room but bad weather – no lights on? Time now 11.10 – drawing or painting on banner has not started yet.</p> <p>Teacher talks quietly with mentor away from the group.</p> <p>Teacher and mentors continue to give suggestions to the group.</p> <p>When the students participate in welcoming activity they need to meet and return to the Football Club – no transport – no permits for cars – need to travel with everyone else – very long day</p> <p>Students relaxed - no sense of urgency – trying to listen to music on headphones but mentor is asking them to put headphones etc away – respect for mentor (very calm, but firm manner – quiet voice, very patient, approachable, friendly).</p> <p>Opportunities for distributed leadership take a lot of planning and forward thinking to support individuals to be successful with the leadership they take on. If too open not supportive and too many decisions to cope with for individual.</p> <p>Encouraging motivation, assertiveness to activity participate or offer leadership is difficult – especially when individual has custom for waiting for instruction, does not have skills to apply to situation – needs to have ‘bite size’ leadership opportunities.</p> <p>Teacher picks up brief again to remind group what they need to do. She reads out criteria again to group, group discuss what they need to put on the banner. They joke about a ‘Canadian’ popular figure suggestion.</p> <p>Teacher goes out to get more images and comes back with more ideas that she puts to the group. She reminds them of time and suggests / directs content to students.</p> <p>Mentor goes round pouring out juice to individuals, she gives her own suggestions about how to progress.</p> <p>Teacher points out to the groups that she feels like she is doing the banner on her own and needs them to take more charge of decisions – students try to support and discuss ideas.</p> <p>Students ask to go to the toilet, teacher says yes but it’s not necessary to ask, as it’s not school.</p> <p>Teacher reminds students of pressure on her to complete banner and to expectations from her boss, trying to relate pressure to the students.</p> <p>Teacher starting to show frustration – can’t find pictures - she draws out design larger – students make suggestions to help ease pressure.</p> <p>Group collect up pictures to help focus on large design, some move over to the banner or around teacher to view design.</p> <p>Teacher demonstrates free hand drawing from picture stating that she</p>	
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<p>does not enjoy drawing but states the students draw a lot at school and should be doing this not her.</p> <p>Everyone moves over to the banner, she asks who wants to draw onto the banner design – all quiet then one boy volunteers, saying quite a few times he wants to. Teacher ignores this and suggests herself (reasons not given?). Boy then volunteers to mix colours and organises paints with supervision from mentor.</p> <p>2 or 3 students not participating , sitting on floor, then return to table to help – not sure what their role is?</p> <p>Teacher is mostly involved in activity and then asks about ‘painting groups’ trying to get the students to organise themselves.</p> <p>Teacher is getting ‘fractious’ as she says because students are sitting around or wobbling table she asks for volunteers to draw stars on – same boy volunteers to draw stars.</p> <p>Learning mentor sitting on the floor – losing motivation to participate. Hard to keep continued focus and not let mind wander onto other agenda affecting me.</p> <p>Get involved in work issues – manager asking me questions related to work as I am at hand – easy access.</p> <p>Always have temptation to influence content of session to enhance observation experience for research purposes especially as manager</p>	<p>When I felt I had sufficient data I finished my observing and offer my help to the teacher (as an ex art teacher) – I try to organise the students to paint a bit each and draw out some trickier bits seeing as they were running out of time.</p>
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Appendix Q **Sample of 'division of labour' coded data in NVivo8**

Document 'JD for sessional teacher' for Centre B, 2 passages, 384 characters.

Section 0, Paragraphs 18-22, 314 characters.

To assist Senior Education Officer in maintaining good links with all participating schools and ensure the programme feeds into in-school learning.

To assist Senior Education Officer in the preparation of teaching materials and other resources.

To co-ordinate the staff team of teaching assistants and volunteers.

Section 0, Paragraph 73, 70 characters.

Ability to work effectively on both an individual and collective basis.

Document 'JD mentor' for Centre A, 2 passages, 407 characters.

Section 0, Paragraphs 14-15, 190 characters.

To work as a part of PfS team to provide support for individuals and small groups of pupils to improve learning skills and confidence.

To support the Centre Teacher in the session delivery.

Section 0, Paragraphs 25-26, 217 characters.

To provide physical and emotional care through involvement in all aspects of the child's attendance at the centre.

To assist in creating an appropriately stimulating learning environment and set up learning resources.

Document 'Centre B hand book', 2 passages, 499 characters.

Section 0, Paragraph 10, 122 characters.

Waltham Forest have commissioned LOCSP to run two supplementary schools during term time over a year beginning April 2012.

Section 0, Paragraphs 37-38, 377 characters.

Teaching staff

Our policy is to ensure our staff to pupil ratio is always as high as possible. The Centre Manager and Centre Teacher are fully qualified and experienced teachers. Other staff include study support assistants and voluntary learning mentors who work with pupils.

Document 'Centre B manager interview', 8 passages, 2159 characters.

Section 0, Paragraph 21, 156 characters.

We now have 2 full time course leaders for Btec sport, one working with Waltham Forest kids and one working with alternative provision kids, which is yr 11s.

Section 0, Paragraph 46, 228 characters.

When we started I was down there some Saturdays trying to deal with this that and the other, but it's difficult for me because six day weeks is not good, it's not healthy (laughs). It's bad enough being here till 8pm every night, yeah.

Section 0, Paragraph 49, 158 characters.

I manage our entire department, but I am also here to drive on the work we do in schools, to get out into the six Boroughs, because we work as an organization.

Section 0, Paragraph 49, 285 characters.

It's about building really strong relationships with certain schools, that will pay for your services and it's keeping it in the school, because we grew it out of control I think five years ago, with so many sessions in place and coaches weren't very reliable, it all kind of fell apart.

Section 0, Paragraph 49, 155 characters.

It was all about outputs and we couldn't get them so I think from that xxxx just thought let's stick to the small things that we are good at, that we can do.

Section 0, Paragraph 55, 271 characters.

Hopefully, the teacher feels like she has quite good ownership of that because I don't go down and check on what she is doing, I mean I will do my observations and we do have monthly reviews and things, but she's running her own curriculum, she's got ideas, she can just do it.

Section 0, Paragraph 64, 535 characters.

These team meetings with all the projects present... and I just sat there yesterday for 2 hours with this problem, that problem, IT etc etc, I came out and I just, my god... I feel suicidal now, I set it up all wrong and then xxxx (chief exec) today said I want a one-to-one with you, what we are going to do is separate it all because you are getting really stressed and I am more worried about you because you mean more to me than them guys, basically you need to meet with your course leaders separately, they need to run their own meetings.

Section 0, Paragraph 64, 371 characters.

People come to me and pull me out, whereas really they need to go to their line-manager for the courses that they do first and then the course leaders come to us once a week, so it's not us running around, but I think it's where we have come from the bottom. I tend to be worst, I just jump when people say I want to do it there and then, to get it sorted and then that's done.

Document 'mentor assessment sheet for Volunteer Programme', 3 passages, 561 characters.

Section 0, Paragraphs 7-12, 182 characters.

Communication skills:
Attitude towards senior staff
Relationship with other mentors
Ability to work in a team
General attitude and enthusiasm
Ability to accept constructive criticism

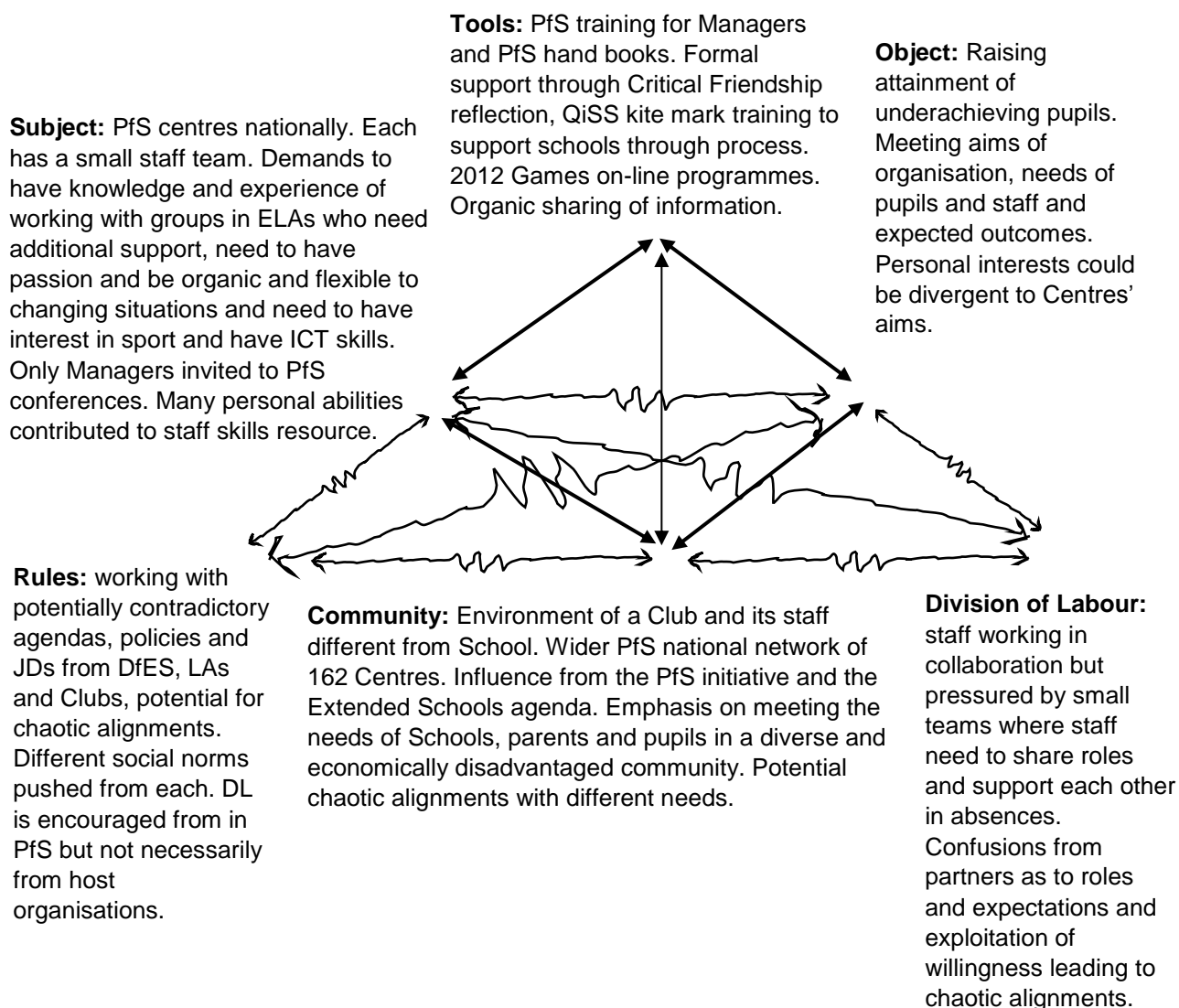
Appendix R **Communication structures in both Centres**

Centre A	Centre B
Steering group minutes (twice a year)	Weekly staff meeting minutes
QiSS Kite mark – on-going self-evaluation	Monthly teacher reports
Informal feedback to Line Manager in LA	Monthly Manager reports
Informal observations in open classroom set-up	Termly formal observations
Informal discussions in the office	Weekly emails to manager from teacher
OCN diaries completed by volunteers	OCN diaries completed by volunteers
OCN external verification documents	OCN external verification documents
Feedback after sessions	Feedback after sessions

Appendix S **Examples of researcher's reflections**

Session	Date	Self-reflections in field notes
Centre B – LOCOG training session to be a reporter during the Games	14.09.12	This was a difficult session to gain meaningful data from as it was run by another organisation. However it demonstrated the opportunities that staff and children were given in connection with the Centre.
Centre A – PFS After School session	02.07.12	The Manager introduced me and my role so I didn't speak and interrupt the social environment by talking...Should notes be written in past or present tense, as I am writing I might miss something. However cameras could change atmosphere? Me writing changes atmosphere? Difficult not to interfere...distracted by my own interests such as child with lots of summer school medals – too many courses? One child is suffering a twisted ankle, Manager and Teacher question her and she is given an ice pack (I feel bad for not helping).
Centre B – Saturday School Olympic banner	14.07.12	Some eye contact, showing friendliness, not serious, being non-threatening, needed to interrupt for toilet, wanted to help set up tables, offer art skills – remained distanced, writing notes. Teacher of the session asked a question for advice as they knew I was there and had expertise, hard to ignore.
Centre A – Summer School – Games promotion	14.09.12	Difficult to judge timing of when to introduce myself to the pupils – being honest about who I am in other roles, not just this position. (Field notes make comments about part of the session I praise as a line-manager- 'Good that children can contribute with own experiences').

Appendix T **Macro activity system for the National PfS Centres**



Appendix U Meso activity system for each Centre

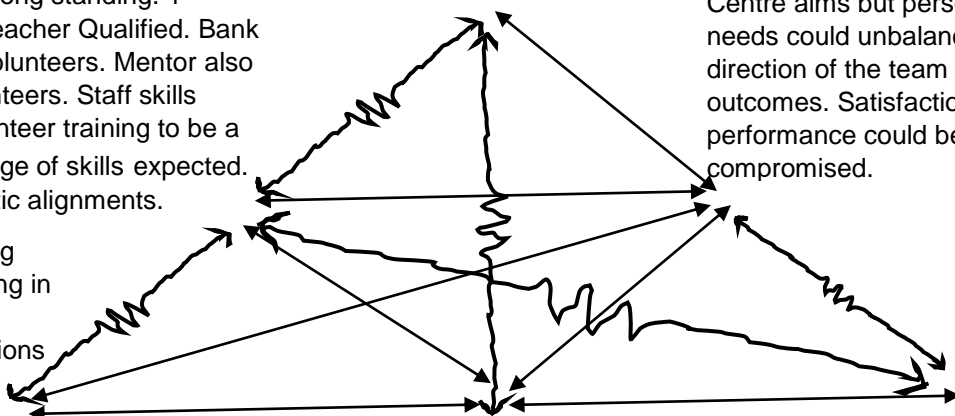
Centre A

Tools: Complex knowledge for ICT software 2012 curriculum, formal assessments and evaluations, OCN volunteer programme and QiSS kite mark but lack of appraisals and observations – organic alignments becoming chaotic.

Object: Pressure to meet LA's goals in line with Government's and the needs of pupils and staff. Individuals are committed to Centre aims but personal needs could unbalance direction of the team and outcomes. Satisfaction, performance could be compromised.

Subject: All staff long standing. 1 Manager and 1 Teacher Qualified. Bank of Mentors and Volunteers. Mentor also coordinating volunteers. Staff skills encouraged. Volunteer training to be a teacher. Wide range of skills expected. Potential for chaotic alignments.

Rules: JDs coming from LA but working in Club environment. Confused perceptions of role in trying to meet PfS ideal of leadership distribution.



Community: Hosted in football club with classroom and office connected so knowledge is more easily shared. Influence from the PfS initiative and the Extended Schools agenda, strong partnerships with school and local communities through the LA. A steering group of stakeholders supports the quality assurance in the Centre.

Division of Labour: high collaboration among staff, but lack of structure and exploitation leading to chaotic alignments..

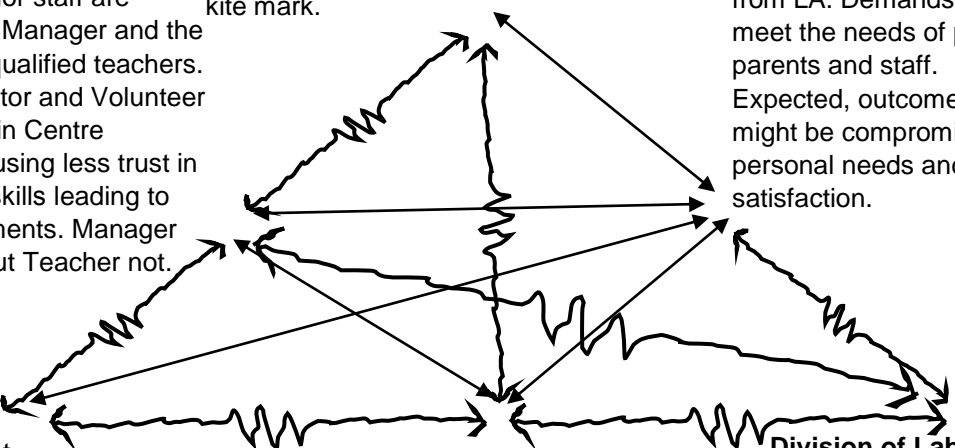
Centre B

Tools: 2012 curriculum, innovative equipment, assessments and evaluations, training, reporting systems, appraisals and observations but not benefitting from a steering group or the process of a QiSS kite mark.

Object: Pressure to meet the Club's agenda, less from LA. Demands to meet the needs of pupils, parents and staff. Expected, outcomes, might be compromised by personal needs and satisfaction.

Subject: Senior staff are longstanding. Manager and the Teacher are qualified teachers. Teacher, Mentor and Volunteer not very long in Centre potentially causing less trust in each other's skills leading to chaotic alignments. Manager desiring DL but Teacher not.

Rules: JDs coming from the Club who is significantly dominant in every part of the delivery. Much less coming from the LA.

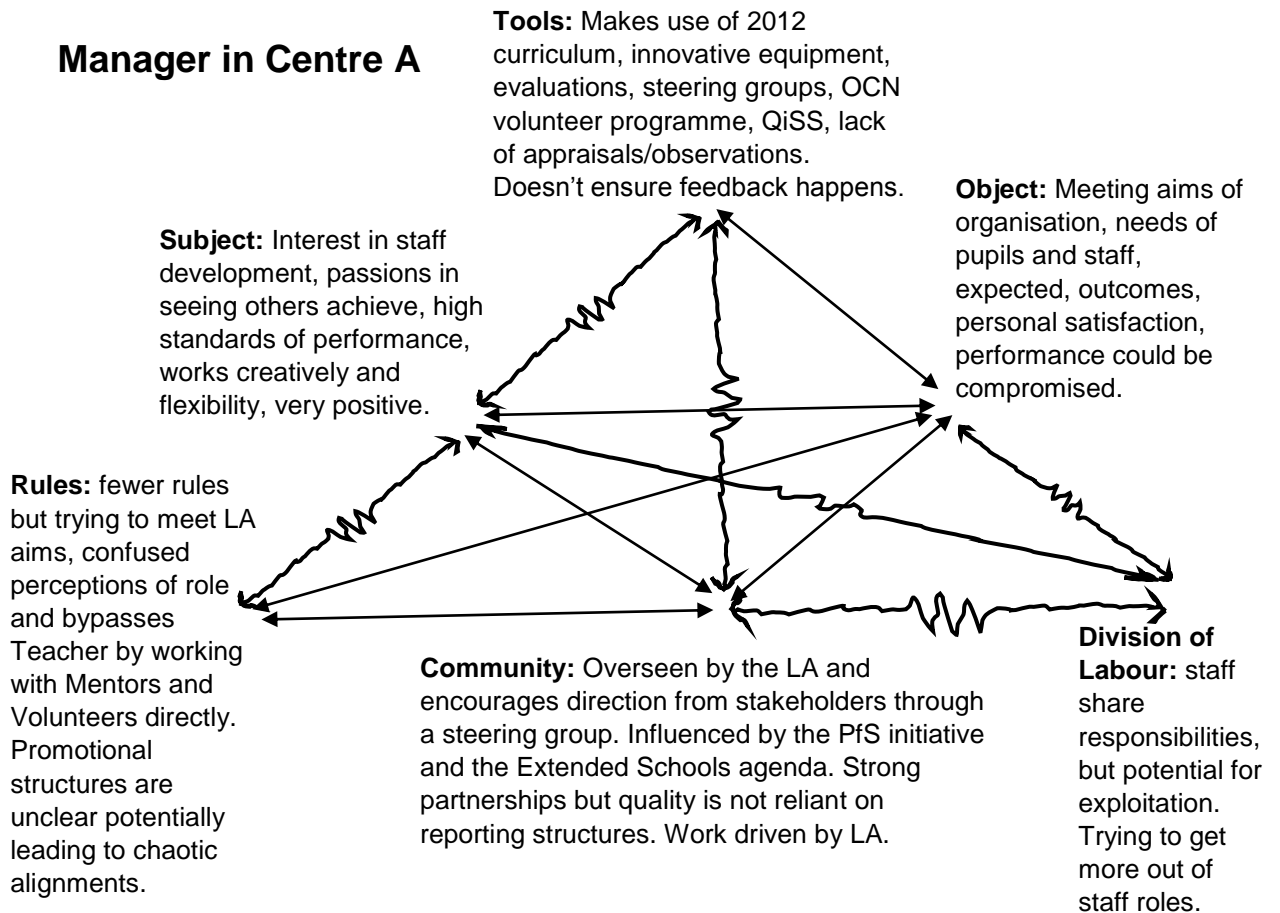


Community: Classroom and office is separate reducing the of sharing knowledge. Influence from PfS initiative and Extended Schools agenda. Strong partnerships in the Club and Schools. Quality assurance through observations and 1:1 reporting.

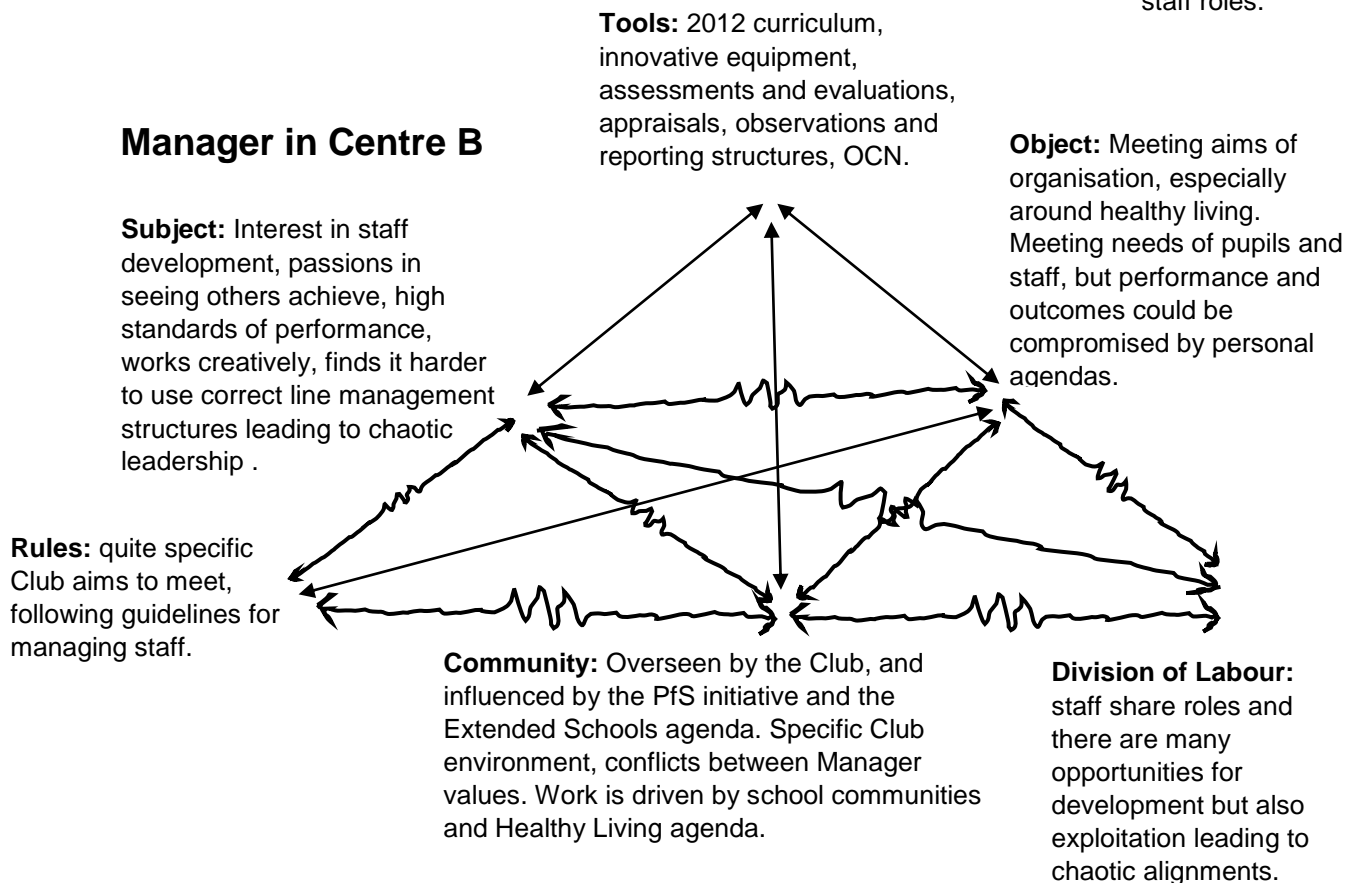
Division of Labour: individual roles but more pragmatic and less sharing and opportunity to learn new skills.

Appendix V Micro Activity systems for each role

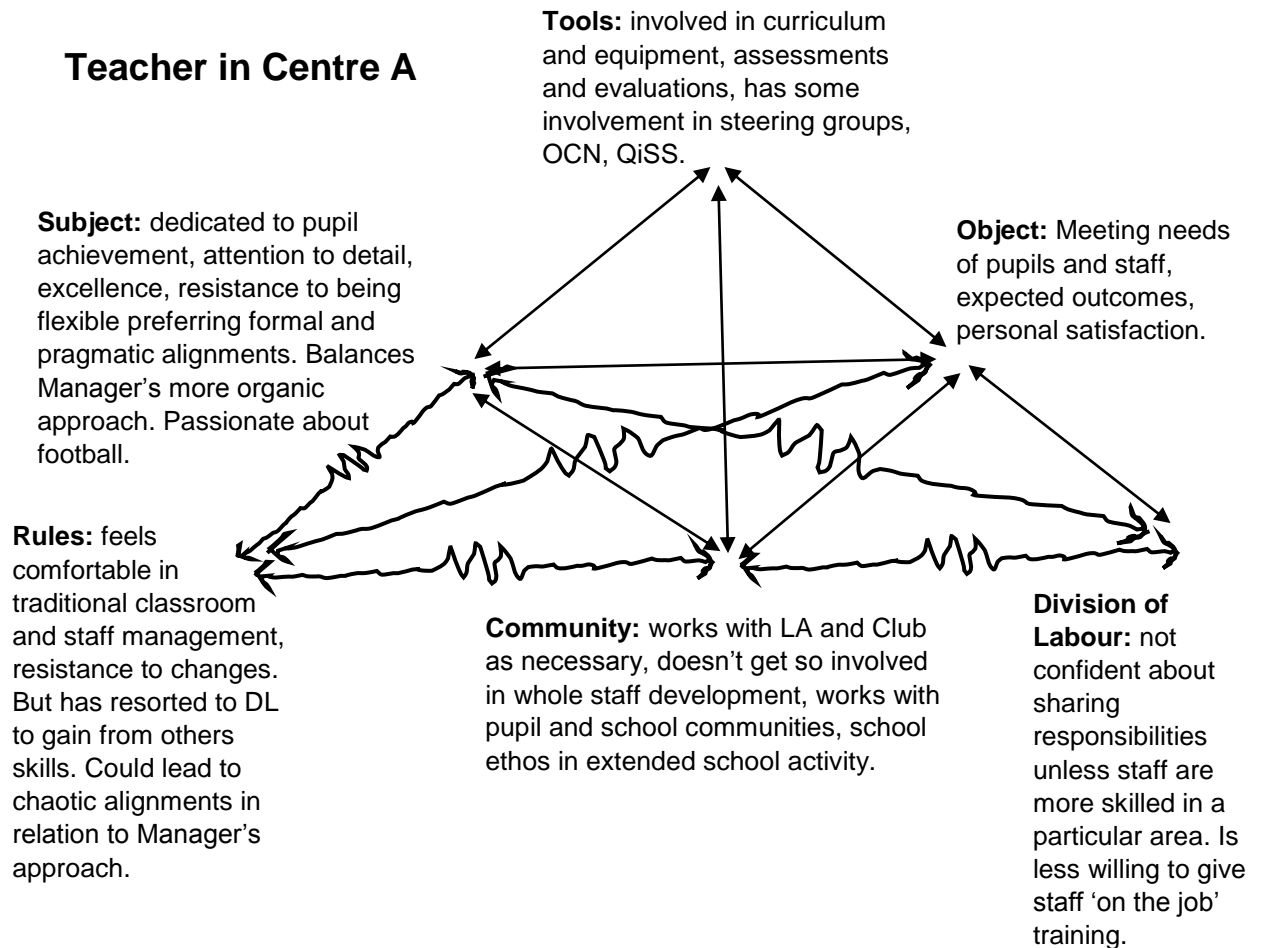
Manager in Centre A



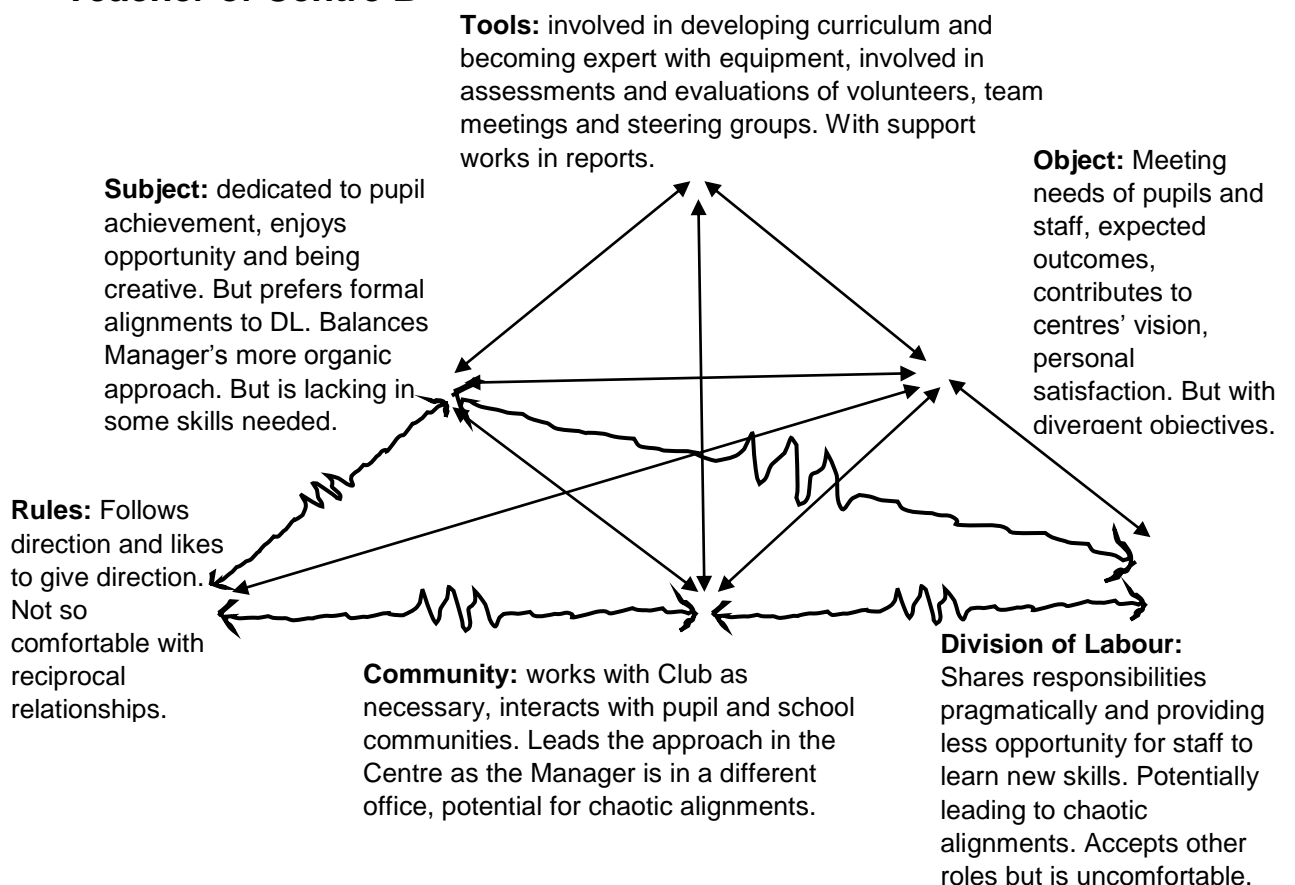
Manager in Centre B



Teacher in Centre A



Teacher of Centre B



Mentor in Centre A

Subject: dedicated to pupil achievement, perfectionism, doesn't like lack of organisation, not so flexible. Has useful ICT skills. Has ambition and is happy to take on the Volunteer Coordinator role.

Tools: uses formal 2012 curriculum, innovative equipment, assessments and evaluations, is involvement in team meetings and supporting Volunteers on their accredited programme.

Object: Meeting needs of pupils and staff, expected outcomes, and gaining personal satisfaction. Enjoys being a part of the whole Centre vision.

Rules: feels comfortable in a more organic classroom and can adapt between the Teacher's formal and pragmatic alignments to the Manager's organic ones.

Community: works with Club as necessary, and gets involved in whole staff development, works with pupil and school communities, school ethos in extended school activity. Has worked with Manager to gain the QiSS kite mark.

Division of Labour: Takes on extra duties beyond his job description and sees these as opportunities.

Mentor in Centre B

Subject: dedicated to pupil achievement, enjoys contributing or 'helping', feeling needed. But feels undervalued for work she does carry out leading to chaotic alignments.

Tools: uses curriculum but does not contribute, supports pupils with their evaluations and gives feedback as a member of staff. Needs more communication from Teacher.

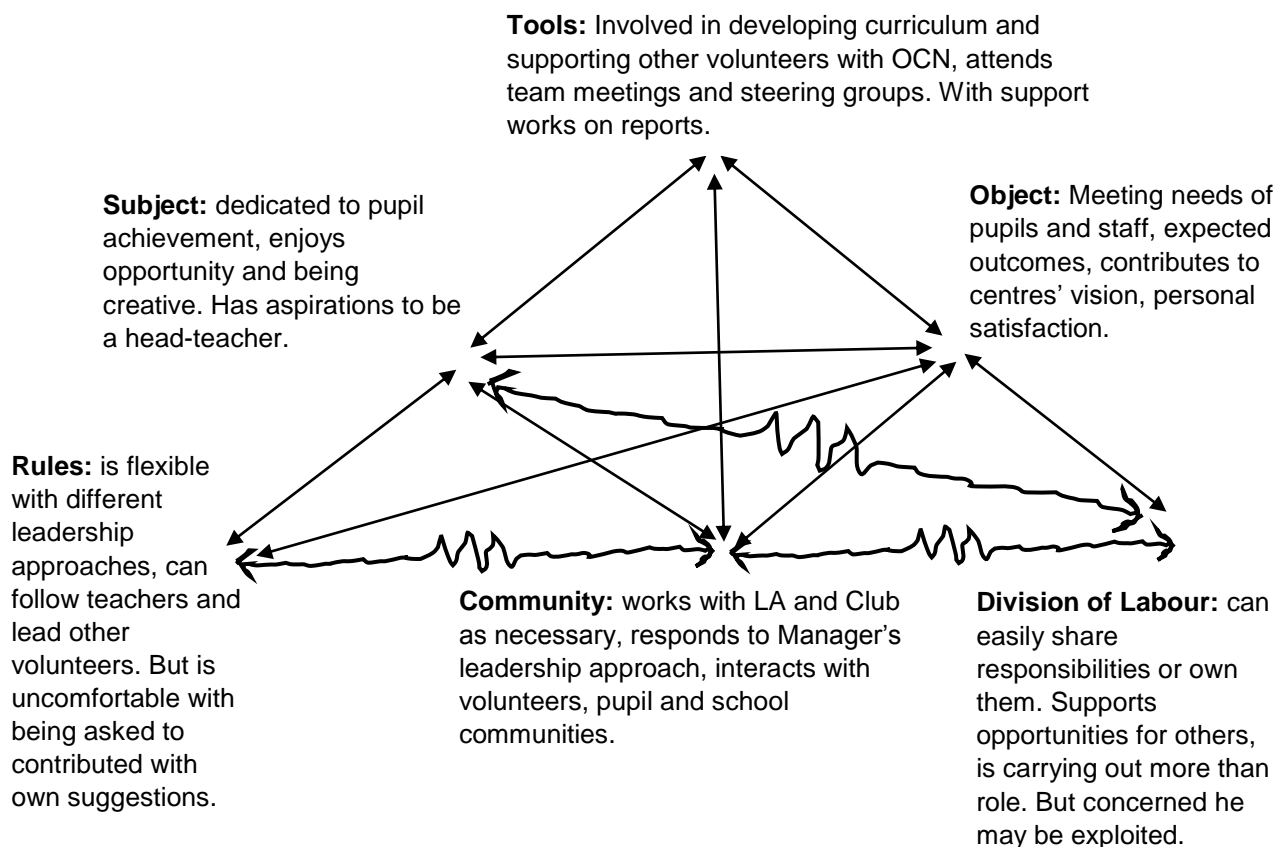
Object: Meeting needs of pupils and staff, expected outcomes, no relationship with influencing these aims but gains personal satisfaction.

Rules: feels comfortable with the Teacher's more traditional classroom approach but can adapt if necessary.

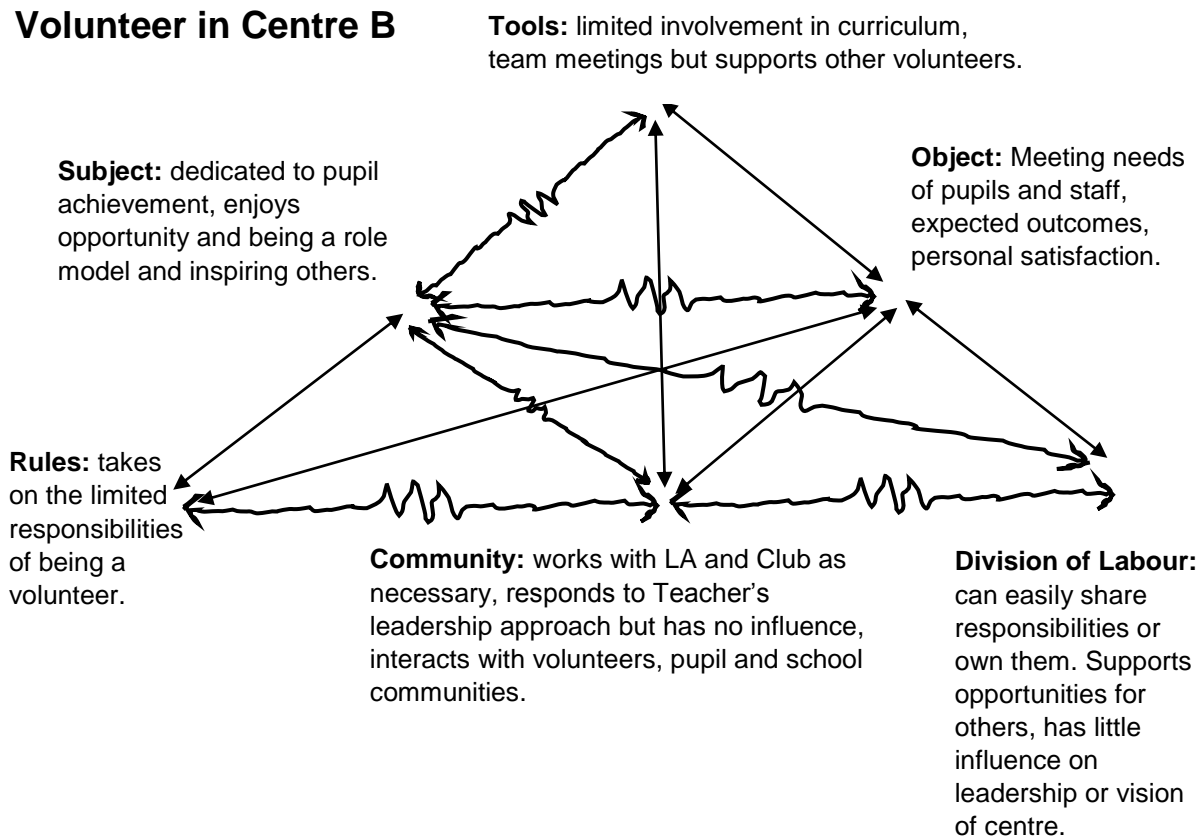
Community: responds to the environment the teacher creates, works with Club as necessary, involved with pupils and school community.

Division of Labour: carries out assigned responsibilities but welcomes opportunities to 'step up', is doing more than is recognised.

Volunteer in Centre A



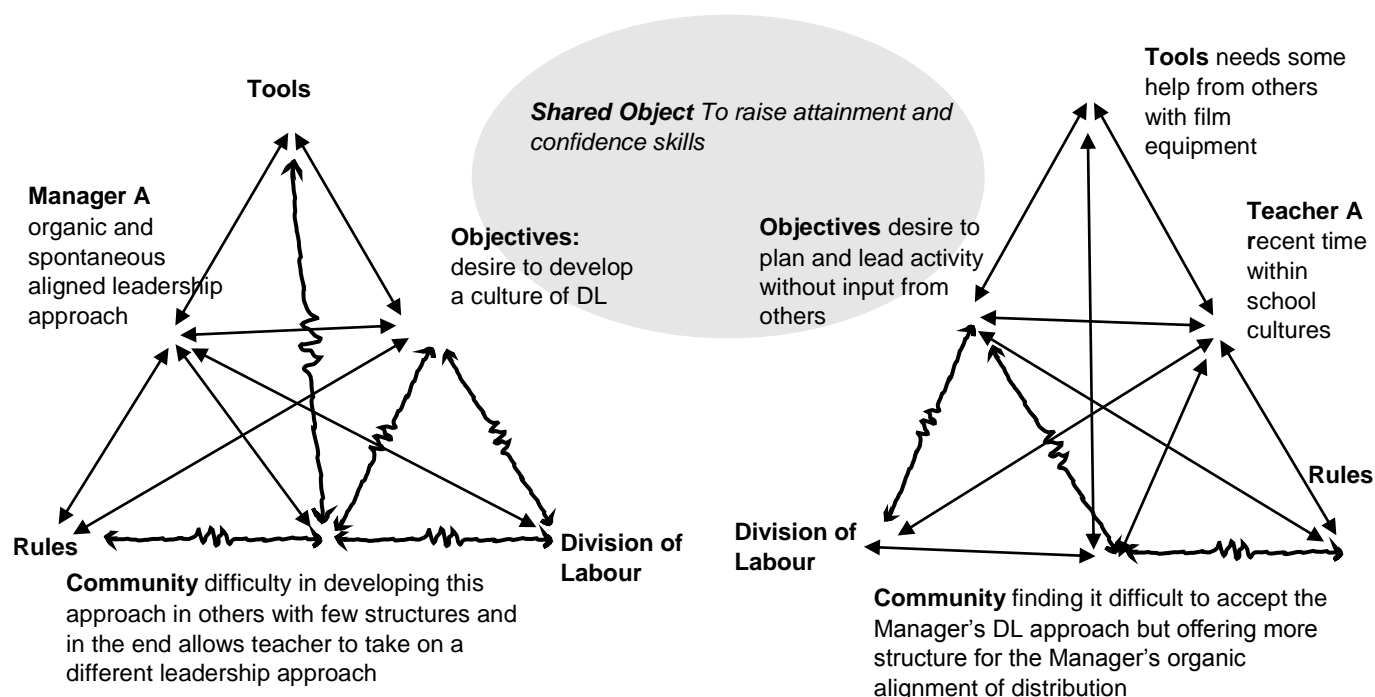
Volunteer in Centre B



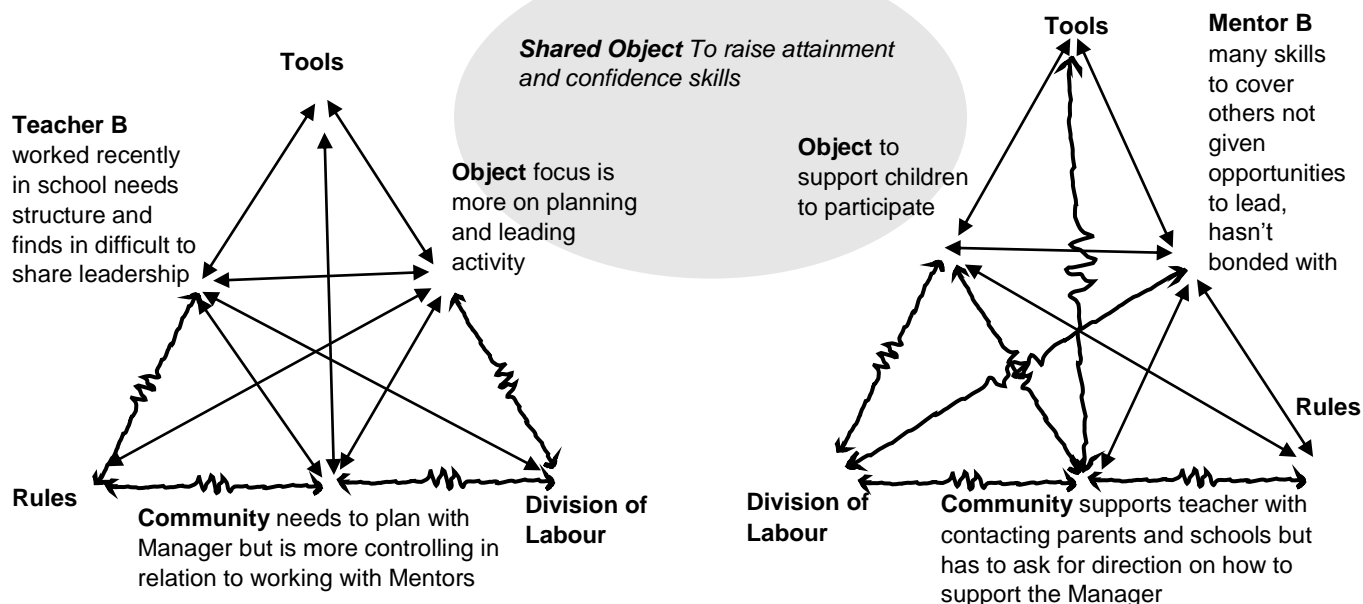
Appendix W Interactive activity systems between staff

To consider the interactions and mediations between subjects (staff members and their roles), it is necessary to create 'interactivity activity systems'. This is presented in a mirror fashion as discussed in the Theoretical Framework chapter and allows us to consider where leadership is distributed as illustrated below:

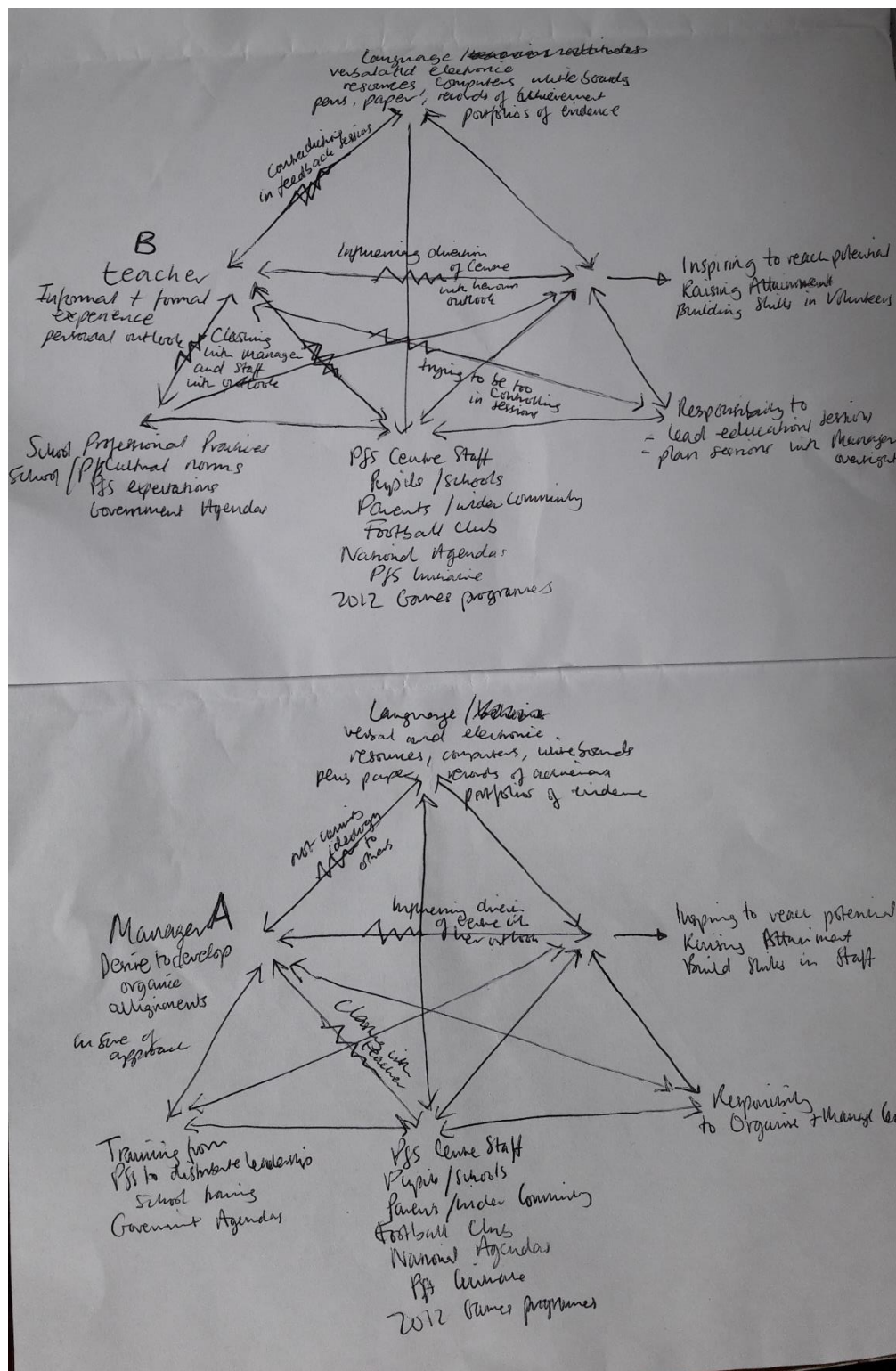
Manager A and Teacher A



Teacher B and Mentor B



Appendix X Example of hand written activity system analysis



Appendix Y **Distribution of leadership similarities in both Centres**

Standard PfS structure of roles; manager, teacher, mentors and volunteers
PfS aims to raise standards through inspiration and aspirations, still held
ES and ECM agendas continued to shape vision - creating a self-prophesizing belief
Key concepts from the New Labour Government around social justice and social capital
Shared ownership and encouragement to be involved in leadership
Volunteer Mentoring Programme was used to induct and train new staff
Less accountability than in school, with external verification from a Critical Friend
Values were already built in prior to those introduced through the Games in 2012
Housed in the Football Club and make extensive use of the resources available
Feeling different from school, more personalized learning for students and staff
Empathy is valued as developed through SEAL programmes
Reciprocal, reflexive relationships are used to influence and challenge
Confusion about what a leadership approach actually means or should look like
DL approach taken on by both Managers but not necessarily the other staff
DL is dependent on staff skills and willingness, but some were overused and unhappy
Staff often carry out additional activities that have been projected onto them, not in role
Personalities of the Managers are very relaxed and open to being flexible and creative
Personalities of the Teachers are perfectionist, enjoying control and order

Appendix Z **How DL values link with Olympic and Paralympic Values**

Value	Successful distributed leadership qualities
Respect	Trusting in each other's abilities to carry out the role assigned, using a critical friend as a 'trusted person who asks provocative questions', (Costa and Kallick, 1993, p.49) who has knowledge and understanding of the context of the school or centre (Baron, 2007, p.57, Harris, 2009).
Excellence	Sharing a vision towards a common goal of raising aspirations and attainment, encouraged leadership as a learning opportunity, (Murphy, 2009, p.187) sharing good practice (Harris, 2009) working to maximum potential and embracing a feeling of 'in it together'.
Friendship	Using a critical friend to support and challenge (Swaffield, 2005, p.47), working as a team and sharing accountability for student learning, (Hallinger and Heck, 2010, p.106) 'shaping organisation culture' (Murphy, 2009, p.182) and being a role model (Swaffield, 2008).
Courage	Taking initiative, self-evaluating and taking on new educational cultures to 'share knowledge' (Harris, 2007, p.321), sharing leadership (Leithwood, et al 2009, p.xvii) and re-thinking power concepts towards the development of a community-anchored organization, (Murphy, 2009, p.183) whilst encouraging independency to develop self-belief and ownership in problem solving (MacBeath and Jardine, 1998, p.42).
Determination	Continuing to work through issues despite knock-backs with a willingness to participate and contribute to the success of the relationship (Swaffield, 2005, p.56).
Inspiration	Learning together from each other, being open to developing skills to engage and motivate young people, developing effective processes of delegation and empowerment, not limiting to leader behaviour resulting in subordinate behaviour, creating a dynamic reciprocal relationship (Guirdham, 2002, p.423), two-way process that influences both individuals and organizational performance (Mullins, 2007, p.364).
Equality	Recognising individual's specific expertise and developing personal professional interests, (Oduro, 2004, p.1) making use of 'people wisdom', making decisions together to develop a higher level of trust and morale, (Davies and Davies, 2006, p.34) Combining leadership of many individuals in the organization to be greater than the sum of the parts, (Woods and Gronn, 2009, p.447) creating opportunities for staff to exercise leadership, (Spillane <i>et al.</i> , 2001, p.24) supporting staff to be involved in decision-making (Harris, 2007, p.319).

